The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 18, 1901.

The Week.

A step toward tariff settlement with Russia has been taken by the Russian Government, which has offered to rescind its action raising the duties on American iron and steel goods and machinery if we will rescind the differential on Russian sugar. Secretary Gage has replied that, since the sugar differential is now in the hands of the courts, this condition cannot be met by the executive branch of the Government. It would certainly be very awkward, but perhaps not impossible in a legal sense, for the United States as plaintiff in a lawsuit to withdraw its action. Nobody could recommend such a step, however much he might have been opposed to the differential in the first instance. Nor, taking a broad view of the matter, does it seem desirable that the case should be arrested at the present stage. We need to know what the law and the facts are in order that we may take intelligent measures for the future. We have suffered far more injury in this episode than we have inflicted. We did not intend to inflict an injury, but we went forward in the old-fashioned way, assuming apparently that we could do anything we liked in respect of foreign trade, without getting "a lick back." We have made a mistake this time, and it may turn out to be good for us.

One bright dream the steel strike has put an end to, and that is the vision which certain promoters have seen of the Trust as the cure-all for labor troubles. We all know what their reasoning was. You were to group industries into combinations so vast that labor unions could not think of measuring swords with them. And, of course, you were to have your huge corporations managed by men so wise and just that they never would give workingmen cause of complaint, and so the strike would become as obsolete as a Roman toga. The union of bigness and benevolence in the Trust was to bring about a kind of earthly paradise for both capital and labor. Well, we see now that it does not work that way. A tremendous combination of capital fairly invites, we may almost say (human nature being what it is) forces, a tremendous combination of labor. That is exactly what the Amalgamated Association officials at Pittsburgh are saying. "The manufacturers are refusing us the right which they themselves exercised in forming their combination," asserts Treasurer Williams. This may not be the strict truth. We think it is not, so far as we can make out the conflicting statements about what is really meant by "unionizing" a mill. But we have to take laboring men as they are, prone to excitement and exaggeration, not always reasonable or scrupulous; and, being such, they show that the great Trust, far from being the extinguisher of strikes, may prove provocative of them on an enormous scale.

The decision of the striking machinists at Cincinnati to return to work probably marks the collapse of the strike, which began in the latter part of May, for President O'Connell of the Machinists' Union admits that Cincinnati was regarded as the centre of the contest. Reports of the abandonment of the strike by many of the smaller branches, at Newport News, Baltimore, and elsewhere, have been accumulating for some time. The aim of it was to secure a nine-hour day. "We believe that a shortening of the working hours or an increase of wages," said the Metal Trades Association, a body of employers, "can only be brought about by the hearty coöperation of employer and employee in advancing and not retarding production, and in introducing and not fighting improved methods"—a sound doctrine, to which the machinists' leaders, however, paid no heed. The International Union of Machinists made an agreement, about a year ago, with the National Metal Trades Association of manufacturers, which was intended to cover all relationships between the employers and the machinists. This agreement provided for arbitration of disputes, in order to avoid the mutual losses involved in strikes and lockouts. The strike for a nine-hour day was made in defiance of this agreement, and accordingly the Metal Trades Association not only strengthened itself to resist the demands of the strikers, but met in convention in this city and issued a statement declaring that the Machinists' Union had shown itself "an irresponsible body," incapable of making a binding contract, and declining in the future to deal with the union in any manner whatsoever. The folly of the leaders of the machinists has resulted in a useless strike of nearly two months' duration, in the depletion of the treasury of the union, in suffering for the members, and in distrust and disapproval of the leaders on the part of the public. No incident in the recent history of strikes furnishes a more solemn warning to self-respecting workingmen.

It is still too early to say exactly how great is the damage done to this season's corn crop by the hot wave which is still scorching the agricultural West. The monthly estimate of condition, published last week by the Government, is of little value; it is based on returns of July 1, before the worst of the drought had come. On the basis of those figures a crop of average size was indicated. If it is true, as the trade now estimates, that upwards of two hundred million bushels have been ruined since July 1, the total yield would be the smallest since the crop failure of 1894. Unless the adverse conditions continue, however, the low figures of that unlucky year will hardly be reached. The corn crop of 1894 fell to 1,212,000,000 bushels, as against two billion bushels only three years before. But the destruction in the Missouri valley corn-belt has certainly not yet been as severe as that of 1894; and, furthermore, the planted area of corn this season has run at least ten million acres beyond that of seven years ago. There remains, also, the very cheering fact, to which both Government and trade returns bear witness, that the wheat crop, most of which is assured already, will in all probability far exceed any recorded in our history.

The salient fact of the foreign trade returns for the fiscal year, which the Government published on Sunday, is, of course, the movement of export trade, which shows an increase of $93,000,000 over 1900, and of $260,000,000 over 1899. It was more than double the total of any of the six years 1884-1889, and three times as great as the exports recorded in any fiscal year before 1883. It is exceeded in the returns of outside countries only by Great Britain, and if the figures of foreign merchandise reëxported are eliminated from the shipments of both countries, our exports surpass even those of England. Against the $1,460,000,000 shipments of purely domestic products from the United States, in the past fiscal year, stand total domestic exports from Great Britain, in its trade year ending December 31—the largest in its history—of $1,455,000,000. Further examination of the American returns develops another interesting point—that the whole increase over the fiscal year 1900 has been in products of agriculture. The gain in this branch of our exports has been $99,500,000; so that shipments of other than agricultural commodities must have decreased some six million dollars. This, however, is not unexpected or surprising. It was hardly to be expected that, with Europe's industrial markets undergoing severe reaction from their recent "boom," they would buy as much as before from us. This slackening of foreign demand gave the foreign manufacturers a chance to supply their own requirements as they could not do before. The fact is, that

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our manufactured export trade, all circumstances considered, has held its own in a marvellous degree. Full classified returns for the fiscal year are not yet published; but, for the eleven months ending May 31, the total exports of manufactures had decreased only $14,500,000, and the exports of iron and steel goods barely half a million.

There must be some awful mistake in the figures of the Bureau of Navigation reporting American shipbuilding for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1901. What's this—1,178 vessels built, of 401,000 gross tons: a total tonnage surpassed only twice in our whole history? Why, this cannot be. It has been proved, again and again, that ships cannot be built in the United States without a subsidy; so how extremely imprudent in the Commissioner of Navigation to declare that they are being built in greater numbers than for many years. This is very near giving Hanna the lie direct, and we think that the Commissioner should be removed at once. Certainly "the good of the service" would seem to require such a step, or else the violent shutting-up of the shipyards whose owners are insolent enough to build ships after Frye had conclusively demonstrated to them that they could not do it. Anyhow, it is a comfort to know that the Subsidy Bill will be pushed next winter. Depew has said that he will ignore the ships and the facts, and declare again that all our yards will rot and our flag disappear from the ocean unless subsidies be granted. The greater the number of ships built without a subsidy, the more powerful the argument for the subsidy. But, really, the figures themselves ought to be suppressed.

That "foothold" of ours in the Orient is getting terribly encumbered with foreign goods. In fact, according to the latest official statement of Philippine trade, we seem to be standing in Manila knee-deep in English and German and French imports. Take iron and steel manufactures, for example. The United States shipped to the Philippines $136,000 worth during 1900, but England sold $660,000, Germany $249,000, and France $133,000 during the same time. Can it be that the wicked foreigner has begun his horrid work of "dumping" right there on our foothold? Surely the glee with which Briton and Gaul and Teuton have rushed in through our open door in the Philippines is enough to make our protectionists rise up in wrathful demand for slamming it full in their faces. Senator Beveridge will have to see to this. It will never do for him to let that "coign of vantage" for American trade in the East, which he so eloquently described, that "stepping-stone" to the wealth of China, be thus preëmpted by rude foreigners. How can we get off our stepping-stone if we are pinned flat to it by a deluge of foreign goods?

The corporations subject to the franchise tax in Buffalo and Rochester have, it is said, decided to pay it, under a stipulation that they may recover the amount if the Court of Appeals decides that the tax is unconstitutional. This is the tax bill passed while Gov. Roosevelt was in the Executive chair, and mainly through his energy and persistence. If its constitutionality is sustained by the Court of Appeals, it will go far toward making the State independent of the counties in the matter of revenues. It will "stand pat" with Gov. Odell's new tax bills, which, according to reports from Albany, will bring $2,200,000 to the State Treasury in addition to the sum now received from the corporation tax. The work of emancipating the State Treasury from dependence on the counties must go on till it is accomplished, and then local option in the matter of taxes can begin. This can be brought about both by curtailing the State's expenses, and by augmenting its receipts; in the former way preferably. Gov. Odell has encouragingly started both systems, and it is safe to assume that he will not stop while any unnecessary expense can be lopped off, or any available source of needed revenue can be found.

Bull-fighting has been started at South Omaha, Neb., on a new plan, under which the bull is provoked, but not hurt, while the man is hurt, but not provoked. The performers are brought from Mexico, where the sport goes on in the true Spanish fashion. When the show was opened at South Omaha, the public expected bloodshed and hair-breadth escapes, ending in the goring of a horse and the killing of the bull. When they found that it was a make-believe bull fight, in which the only serious actor was the bull himself, they were disgusted and stayed away. Later, new zest was added to the entertainment. The bull, who did not enjoy the fun, or perhaps enjoyed it too well, caught the toreador on his horns, tore his breast open, and threw him about forty feet, whereupon the newspapers and the respectable portion of the community cried out that bull-fighting was a sin and a shame, and ought to be suppressed, and the toreadors and matadors said that they would never have come to Omaha at all if they had known that they were not allowed to defend themselves against the enraged bulls. The new turn given to the show by the bull has created fresh excitement, and filled the grounds with a crowd eager to see somebody or something hurt, the Governor of Nebraska leading the procession. The newspapers and the decent people are more insistent than before that the show shall be abolished. They are right. This kind of bull-fighting is an "entering wedge" for the real Spanish blood-spilling game. If it is allowed to go on, it will end in real combats of men and beasts as a public spectacle and a money-making venture.

The Sultan of Turkey, like the unjust judge of Scripture, has at last done for "continual coming" what he would not do for mere justice. Relays of American Ministers have for six years been politely but pressingly asking him when he was going to pay that little bill, and finally, out of sheer weariness apparently, he has paid it. There is much wise debating over the question who deserves the credit for this result. Let us set it down to American patience and persistence, and have done with it. Secretary Hay steadily urged the righteous claim, and Messrs. Angell, Straus, Griscom, and Leishman presented it again and again, until at last even Turkish stolidity gave way and the money was forthcoming. There has been nothing spectacular about this method, no heroics, no taking the ruffian by the throat; but the business got done, and that, after all, is the chief end of diplomacy. It is triumph enough to have squeezed money out of a chronic bankrupt. Even the missionaries, who have been not a little impatient with the Government for not collecting their damages by means of a bombardment, must now see that the ways of pleasantness and peace have been better. The money is in hand, and there is no blood on it.

The abuse of advertising by signs and posters has raised up in England a Society for Checking the Abuses of Public Advertising, the work of which is interestingly described in Monday's *Tribune*. In a word, the Society found that the system, which works so admirably in France, of imposing a stamp tax on all posted advertisements, was impracticable in England. Instead, they worked to secure a general bill, which gave the local authorities full powers to regulate, restrict, or prohibit advertising that challenges attention in a public way. Many towns immediately adopted restrictive legislation. Dover has taken the lead, requiring a license for all advertisements which are not contained within a window, and for all vehicles chiefly used for advertising purposes, while absolutely forbidding all sky signs. London, Glasgow, Manchester, and many of the smaller towns have passed regulations covering various abuses, such as transparencies, electric flash signs, and sky signs, and regulating the size of the letters permissible in a poster. Everywhere a praiseworthy public spirit has been shown in this matter, and it may reasonably be hoped that England will eventually be as free from this disfigurement as, say, France or Belgium. What has been accomplished in

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England is certainly possible here, where, in fact, reform should be easier; for we have a more strongly pronounced collective sense, and a less exaggerated idea of individual rights.

The London *Daily News*, whose splendid fight against the South African war and Chamberlainism is rapidly making it extremely offensive to the English Jingoes and Imperialists, recently printed a highly effective parallel of the views of the London *Times* on the Cuban situation in 1896, and on that in South Africa in 1901. In the former year (November 13) it found American discontent with the prevailing conditions in Cuba justified, since there was no indication that Spain could restore order in a reasonable time, although she had put forth disproportionate efforts to overcome a small population, to the menace of her Treasury. The failure of these efforts it deemed inexplicable, and the gravity of the situation, it felt, could not be denied. On November 30, 1896, the *Times* again expressed its grave anxieties as to the outcome of the operations in Cuba. It was absurd, it said, to conduct operations there against guerrillas as one would against a regular army, particularly when the commissariat was defective and the exhausted troops fell an easy prey to disease. It scored the policy of concentration, now so popular in South Africa, as defeating its own ends, and thought that, "since the sympathies of a sparse population are of considerable importance, some pains ought surely to be taken to avoid unnecessary provocation." It does not need the *Daily News's* substitution of England for Spain, Weyler for Kitchener, and rebels for Boers, to make all this, and more, too, apply to the existing situation in South Africa in the most deadly and truthful way.

Moreover, while the *Times* thought the Cubans were wise in avoiding pitched battles, it now denounces the Boers as skulkers for playing the same game. It excuses English generals for not knowing that the Boers would not stand up and fight, where it condemned Weyler for similar ignorance in regard to his adversaries. It was a matter of course for the Cubans to wreck trains, but for the Boers to do so is to put themselves "beyond the pale of civilization." No wonder that the *Daily News* cries out against this warping of a once cool judgment by a false patriotism, and thinks that, if the *Times* and other "patriotic" organs could write with a little detachment about South Africa, there would be an extraordinary awakening. Unfortunately, the *Times* is not the only victim of a distorted vision when its own country is the sinner. The record of our own Administration organs on the subject of free Cuba would still less bear the deadly parallel.

British and French naval authorities seem to be engaged just now in a match of self-depreciation. While Lord Charles Beresford, always a pessimist on the subject of admiralty preparation, has been doing his best to create the public impression that the Mediterranean Squadron, of which he is second in command, is in a desperate condition of unreadiness, without a proper supply of guns, men, ammunition, or torpedo-boats and almost at the mercy of French or other possible antagonists, Admiral Dupont, one of the most prominent of French naval officers, has been uttering an almost precisely similar jeremiad over the state of the French fleet, which he appears to regard as ripe for destruction. The Mediterranean division, he admits, is in fairly good shape, but the Channel Squadron is composed of a lot of slow and obsolete old tubs, whose obliteration would be, for England, amusement for a summer's holiday, so to speak. He wants all the French forces concentrated in the Mediterranean, where Toulon and Bizerta, he says, will some day reply victoriously to Malta and Gibraltar. Both officers, of course, would be intensely indignant if any foreigner dared to speak so disrespectfully of their national armaments, and both are animated by the same object, the procurement of larger naval appropriations. Meanwhile the responsible Ministers on both sides profess to be very well contented with things as they are.

That scores of German soldiers who served in the Chinese contingent are returning to the Fatherland in irons probably signifies more than that German discipline is strict. It tells a story, which will probably never be wholly revealed, of atrocities towards the Chinese which could not be ignored, of the reawakening of the brute in the civilized man, of a rage for slaughter which saw everywhere, often in the feeble and inoffensive, a foe. War has never been a pretty business, and it appears that the Germans steered not quite a golden middle course between the self-restraint of the Japanese and the frank bestiality of the Russians. Perhaps nothing better was to be expected of an expedition whose *Dieu le veut* was the Kaiser's "Attila" speech. But those Germans and admirers of Germany who remember the time when that nation stood preeminently for humane and liberal ideals, will hardly view the spectacle with complacency.

While the Russification of Finland goes on apace, occasional proofs are given by the St. Petersburg authorities of a desire to respect the feelings, even the prejudices, of the Finns. The project of the Russian Minister of War for compulsory military service in Finland, with the complete absorption of Finnish conscripts in Russian regiments, has been negatived by the Council of Ministers. The measure is to be recast so as to call upon Finland for only the number of troops fixed by the Diet, to keep the native regiments intact, and to provide that any Russian officer appointed to a Finnish regiment must acquire Finnish citizenship. This is a wise concession, though it amounts to only a light counterweight to the general overriding of what the Finns supposed to be their constitutional rights, to the remodelling of their schools and the suppression of their newspapers.

The recently formed Ministry of the Viscount Katsura, in Japan, faces financial difficulties of a peculiar sort. The previous Ministry had withdrawn because the Minister of Finance had refused to borrow for the prosecution of public works, thereby virtually admitting that the Government's borrowing power was exhausted, and threatening to increase taxation. As a matter of fact, the borrowing power of Japan is much impaired. Last year the attempt to float a loan of eighteen million yen was unsuccessful, and 5 per cent. consols, which have stood as high as 105, were recently quoted at 90. When such a condition exists, despite general prosperity and in the face of revenues which during the past ten years have increased from 85,000,000 to 201,000,000 yen, one can only surmise that the Treasury organization has some radical defect, or that Finance Ministers have recklessly assumed too heavy burdens.

A writer for the London *Times* finds in the neglect to encourage the investment of foreign capital the source of Japan's financial difficulties. Most hospitable to foreign ideas, successive Governments have maintained a policy of financial exclusiveness. They have attempted the almost impossible task of renovating with their own capital the machinery of an old civilization in a single generation. When one remembers the part that foreign capital has played in the development of our own country, and conjectures our condition to-day if that aid had been rejected, he can readily imagine the present case of "the Yankees of the East." In the view of the *Times* contributor, there is no more promising field for foreign investment than Japan, where railroad preferred stocks pay 10 per cent. and the best banks 7. All that is necessary is simplification of the present commercial laws, and legislation favorable to the formation of corporations by foreigners. Unless it is possible largely to increase taxation—always a perilous measure—this policy of friendliness towards the foreign investor is clearly indicated for the new Premier and his associates.

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THE STEEL STRIKE.

The troubles between the United States Steel Corporation and subordinate companies, on the one hand, and the Amalgamated Association of Iron, Steel and Tin Workers on the other, have proved an unwelcome surprise to the public, which had hoped for a summer free from such controversies. But, notoriously, it is in a period of general prosperity, such as the country is now enjoying, that demands on the part of workingmen are most urgent and strikes to secure better terms are most likely. The point at issue in the present dispute is virtually the recognition of the union. "Only one question," said T. J. Shaffer, President of the Amalgamated Association, at Pittsburgh, on July 10, "will come before the conference with the representatives of the steel companies Thursday, and that is the one of unionism. We will ask that our wage scales be signed for all the mills in the respective companies, instead of in some of them." In the past there have been agreements between the Amalgamated Association and employers controlling many of the largest mills where the Association was recognized, by which a scale of wages was amicably agreed upon for application to those mills. In a number of cases the same wages have been paid by other employers who had non-union workingmen. Now the Association wants to have one rule formally applied to all.

The conference proved a failure. If the strike just ordered in consequence involves anything like the 140,000 men which, it is asserted, will be eventually affected by it, it will entail, even at this time of the year, much hardship, suffering, and loss. Public regret will be the more general because the strike seems to have been ordered by the officers of the Amalgamated Association in an effort to force the steel manufacturers to adopt a course which would be cruel toward many of their employees and humiliating to themselves. The public has no other means of judging than the statements given out by President Shaffer and by the officers of the steel companies, and on the face of these it appears that, upon the only vital point, the labor men offered no concessions whatever, taking their stand, from the beginning to the end of the conference, stolidly for compulsory unionizing by the companies of mills where the employees do not desire to join the Association. In order to avoid a strike, the manufacturers offered to unionize some of the mills not now working under the union scale though paying the union rate of wages, but this was not accepted; and, as the labor men on their part offered nothing except a slight concession relating to the scale, which was not in controversy, and a vague promise of immunity for the steel mills in possible future labor disputes, the conference broke up.

The sole justification which President Shaffer is able to offer for the course adopted by the labor men is the charge that the union mills are discriminated against by the combination of manufacturers, that the union mills are operated only when the demand for the steel products is greater than the non-union mills can supply. This is an assertion by one party to a dispute, and it is denied by the opposing party; but even if it were true, it does not appear that a strike is the most appropriate remedy to bring about a cure. The means which would be most effective, and also the most just, would be persuasion. To this end the Association had the promise of non-interference on the part of the manufacturers, and assistance to the extent of permitting Association organizers to enter the mills for the purpose. There is no reason to believe that an extension of the union organization and influence is likely to result from a strike of this nature, which in the beginning cannot command public approval or even sympathy.

The only hopeful feature of the present situation lies in the statement of President Shaffer that there will be no "trouble," by which he doubtless means violence. The men, he says, are more readily controlled than they were twenty-five years ago, or even five years ago. It is most earnestly to be hoped that this is true, and that the leaders of the Amalgamated Association will remember the price their organization was obliged to pay nine years ago as a result of the violence and bloodshed of the Homestead strike.

If we seek for the remoter causes of the strike, we shall perhaps find them in what the workingmen look upon as the necessities of Wall Street. They see a vast accumulation of shares in the market whose selling value depends upon the daily outturn of a product; that is, upon their labor. They think that the capitalists who preside over the companies cannot afford to let the quotations fall, and hence that the latter will yield the point in dispute, which is not a question of wages, rather than see the price of their securities fall. In other words, they think that this is an opportunity to compel the managers of the property to unionize the entire steel combination—an opportunity which has never occurred before, and, if not availed of now, may never come again.

The significance of the step is that, if the company yields this point, it must yield the next one, which will be a question of wages. The company is able to defend itself now by using non-union labor, but, when all the mills are unionized, it will not have this resource. Then it will be compelled to sign scales made by President Shaffer, although its competitors, the small companies and private manufacturers, may be working with non-union labor, and perhaps at lower wages than the scale of the Amalgamated Association. It appears to us that in allowing the Association to unionize all the mills if it can, the company has gone as far as prudence will allow, and that if it should take the step of forcing its employees into the union, it would commit self-destruction and forfeit public sympathy at the same time.

When the United States Steel Company was formed, we took occasion to point out the dangers which so gigantic a combination involved—the unsettlement of men's minds and the spread of socialistic ideas which it would almost certainly bring about. Flinging millions into the air is always an unsafe experiment. It causes a scramble, turns people's heads, makes some persons crazy, and upsets, among others, the habits of old-fashioned industry and economy as the means of livelihood. "Why should we toil and sweat for a bare subsistence when others make fabulous riches by a stroke of the pen?" is the question which thousands of men ask themselves. The steel combination was an incentive and an inducement to a labor combination, and if we get off with nothing worse than a labor strike, we may perhaps consider ourselves lucky. No doubt the promoters of the steel combination were themselves controlled by events. So, too, President Shaffer may say that he has been controlled by them. It is to be hoped, however, that some other mode of settlement of the conflict may be found than that of the endurance of pain which must be the lot of thousands, if not millions, of poor men, women, and children.

AN AMERICAN ALDERSHOT.

If Secretary Root succeeds in creating an American Aldershot at Fort Leavenworth or Fort Riley, he will have achieved a reform in the professional education of the army which, together with his introduction of the interchangeable line and staff system, will make his administration famous in the history of the War Department. In brief his plan is to utilize the great military reservations at those posts for the annual assembling of a sufficient number of troops of all branches of the service to practise brigade and division movements, that line and staff officers may become familiar with the difficulties attendant upon the handling of thousands of men in the field and in the presence of an enemy. How radical a departure this will be may be gleaned from the fact that, during the twenty years preceding the Spanish war, there were only two attempts to have manœuvres on a large scale—one under Gen. Brooke in 1886, and the other under Gen. Miles near Chicago in 1894 with the troops which had suppressed the railroad riots in that city.

In other words, the great majority of

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the officers who took part in the Santiago campaign had probably never seen a brigade or division drill, except those of them whose service dated back to the civil war. That the hastily constituted brigades and divisions which made up Shafter's corps held together before Santiago, is due to the simple nature of the offensive campaign undertaken, and also to the native intelligence and intuition of the American officer. It is true that, before the Spanish war, the Cavalry School at Fort Riley, the Infantry and Cavalry School at Fort Leavenworth, and the Artillery School at Fort Monroe had done much to give officers a post-graduate course in the theory of their respective arms of the service. But opportunities for the practical carrying out of these teachings were so few and far between as to quite account for the mistakes and blunders made even by regular army officers when it became necessary to mobilize large bodies of absolutely raw and untrained troops in the spring of 1898. Gen. Wherry has recently called fresh attention to the fact that, when Shafter's troops arrived on the docks at Tampa, only one officer knew to which ship each regiment was assigned, and that he was indistinguishable among 10,000 men. Yet all the officers concerned in the direction of this movement were regulars. There could be no better illustration than this of the helplessness of theoretically trained soldiers when brought face to face with a great practical problem in logistics.

Even at West Point, the education of cadets was, until a couple of years ago, confined wholly to the "bookish theoretic" and the unending repetition of company and battalion drills, without practical value except for the creation of drill-masters who could teach the a b c of a modern soldier's education. If grand-guard mountings, field reconnoissances, attacks and defence, etc., were not taught there, how could it be expected that one should find eager instructors in the few Far Western posts where whole regiments were stationed? The Indian campaigns provided the necessary training to make men good scouts, hardy and untiring, able to strike a trail and follow it for months, if necessary, as Lawton did in Arizona. But it was only the few officers sent abroad as military attachés who realized the one-sidedness and incompleteness of the regular army's education, and who, together with some intelligent students and thinkers among the younger officers, started those beginnings of reform which had just made themselves felt before the call to a foreign campaign came.

Such officers as did get an insight into European methods brought back stories of soldiers who were put through a regular military curriculum, beginning with the rifle, and passing through company, battalion, regimental, brigade, division, and even army corps drills, before a final experience in the great fall manœuvres, where generals learn to handle 40,000 or 50,000 men under conditions as closely approximating war as possible—all this in the course of one year. It is needless to say that so elaborate a system is neither possible nor desirable here. But as we have an army, common sense and economy demand that it should know its business in order that the people may get their money's worth; and Secretary Root is only doing his "plain duty" when he plans for a camp which shall serve to bring together five or ten or fifteen thousand regulars, and perhaps some militia, too, for the advanced military training which can be acquired in no other way.

Only through such practice-camps can officers be tried out and the real commanders discovered. Nearly all of the twenty-two line generals of our army never drilled a brigade before receiving their commissions. Such a camp as Secretary Root proposes would enable candidates for the highest positions to show some other fitness than political pulls and skill in getting the ear of the President or of some Senator. Similarly, the fitness of junior officers could well be reported on by their superiors after three months of constant drilling, marching, and manœuvring.

The fact that all the second lieutenants and many of the first lieutenants of regulars have just been chosen from volunteer officers of no original military schooling makes the question of the education of the army a pressing one, particularly as this same class of men has furnished the eight or nine offenders who are now in Manila jails for plain and vulgar stealing. Lord Wolseley recently said that the American army is "the best of its size in the world." To have spoken more accurately he should have said, "has in its upper commissioned grades and in its ranks the best material in the world." Whether that material shall be well digested and rounded into the best possible shape depends entirely upon the War Department. Secretary Root's plan is a long step in the proper direction, and will repay its cost a thousand-fold, whether the army be 25,000 or 75,000 men.

BRYANISM IN OHIO.

In the Ohio Democratic Convention last week a resolution to reaffirm the Kansas City platform and express renewed confidence in William J. Bryan received only six votes in a body composed of 959 delegates. The significance of this vote can be best understood by reading, in connection with it, an article published in Mr. Bryan's paper, the *Commoner*, only three weeks ago, the gist of which is embraced in the following paragraph:

"Do not allow a man to be placed upon any committee—precinct, county, State, or national—unless he is a believer in the Kansas City platform. If a man opposed to the Kansas City platform is sent as a delegate to any convention, he should be bound by instructions, and should have associated with him a sufficient majority who are sound on the platform. If a man objects to instructions, leave him at home; no Democratic delegate will object to an expression from the voters whom he seeks to represent."

The Kansas City platform embraces a variety of things, but it is not difficult to analyze it and learn what the Ohio Democracy intended to condemn. The two main planks in it were those opposing the policy of the Administration in the Philippines, and the one endorsing the free coinage of silver. Now the Ohio Democrats have adhered to the principles of the Kansas City plank regarding the colonial policy of the Government, making only such changes as the progress of events requires. They oppose any extensions of our national boundaries which are not meant to carry speedily to all the inhabitants the same civil and political rights that we enjoy. The Ohio platform in this particular is in harmony with the address of the Anti-Imperialist League which was issued on Independence Day of the present year. The Convention had an excellent send-off in the speech of Chairman Salen. Some exception may be taken to his remarks on the subject of Trusts as being too vague, but on the questions of foreign conquest and the government of subject races by a free people he gave no uncertain sound. He denounced the system of crown colonies and the subjugation of unwilling peoples, whether undertaken by the British in South Africa or by Americans in the Philippines. He gave an ideal picture of an orderly and just republic, governed by the principles of freedom handed down to us by the fathers, seeking no man's blood, and no man's money except through the avenues of peaceful commerce, setting an example of equality of all men before the law and of equal opportunity in the race of life. Such, he contended, was the ideal of the Democratic party, and the one which it sought to introduce, instead of the present policy of foreign domination and exploitation, a policy tending to weaken our attachment to the principles which gave us birth as a nation, and to embroil us with foreign Powers. If the Democratic party could be keyed up to the pitch of Mr. Salen's speech, it would deserve success.

The other main plank of the Kansas City platform was in the following words:

"We reaffirm and endorse the principles of the national Democratic platform adopted in Chicago in 1896, and we reiterate the demand in that platform for an American financial system made by the American people for themselves, which shall restore and maintain a bimetallic price level, and, as part of such system, the immediate restoration of the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1,

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without waiting for the consent of any other nation."

This plank the Ohio Democracy refused, by an overwhelming majority, to reaffirm, Mr. Bryan's exhortations notwithstanding.

When we reflect that the Ohio Democrats, from the days of Old Bill Allen to those of Bryan himself, have been perhaps the most determined and incorrigible advocates of cheap money, soft money, and "poor man's money" in the whole country, the significance of this action can be properly appreciated. It means that the Democratic party of the nation has at last definitively abandoned Bryanism, and is to be reorganized, not by a change of committeemen and stump speakers, but by the deliberate dropping of a played-out issue and candidates. This kind of reorganization is feasible, because it represents the thoughts and feelings of the voters. It is not a scheme or an intrigue. It is not the result of wire-pulling. If the truth could be told by the leaders at Kansas City last year, they would say that the sentiment of the party was then in favor of throwing silver overboard, and that this would have been done if Mr. Bryan had not insisted upon keeping it as an issue. They could not do without Mr. Bryan as a candidate, and they were obliged to take him on his own terms. In this respect they stood toward him very much as they did toward Mr. Cleveland in 1892. The candidate made the platform in both instances, but the consequences at the polls were somewhat different.

The Ohio Convention has sounded the keynote for the Democratic party in the Union. The South has long desired to get rid of silver as an issue in national politics. The Eastern wing of the party has been all the time against silver. If we look for a Bryan contingent in the next national Convention, we shall not find one, unless perhaps in the silver-mining States. The Silver Republicans must now abandon their own organization and come back as individuals to their former party allegiance, or go out of politics altogether. Silver need not be reckoned with hereafter on the floor of Congress or in any national campaign. The country has much cause for rejoicing over this event. The battle has been long, and at times almost desperate, and the Democrats have not been the only ones at fault.

ENGLISH PARTIES AND THE WAR.

The healing of the deadly wound in English Liberalism on July 9 was evidently accomplished only in the sense that a large poultice was ostentatiously spread over it. A real cure remains to be effected, if, indeed, the hurt is not immedicable. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's tactics were, however, sufficiently clever. Knowing that Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey and their handful of Adullamites were in no condition to challenge his leadership, he craftily came down on them with a demand that they either give him a vote of renewed confidence or else set up for themselves. Of course, they immediately vowed that Sir Henry had no more loyal followers than themselves, and so all was at once outward harmony, though the internal and bitter differences remain precisely what they were.

It is obviously the Boer war which has been the temporary undoing of the Liberals. War, we may say, is always a political disaster to the Radical party, to the party of social reform and progressive democracy. It was the Napoleonic wars which kept the Whigs hopelessly out of power for a generation, and made Pitt and Canning and Wellington masters of the destinies of England. And it was no chance assemblage of words which the forefathers of the present English Liberals placed upon their banners when they began the fight to recover political supremacy—namely, "Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform." All these are connected, and peace necessarily stands first. You never can get the people to fix their minds intently upon domestic problems until the powder-smoke of a foreign war blows out of their eyes. It was during the time of furled flags and silent drums that the Liberal party rose to power and wrought its beneficent work; and until England knows a settled peace again, there is little prospect of a Liberal revival.

That Mr. Gladstone ruined the Liberal party by his bill for Irish Home Rule in 1886, is now a part of the current mythology of contemporary politics. It was a strange kind of ruin, out of which he was able to emerge with a majority in 1892. As well say that he ruined his party in 1874, though he returned triumphantly to power in 1880. But all that is a barren dispute. It certainly is not Irish Home Rule which rends the Liberal party to-day. And with that issue, or without it, what would not the Liberal party give for Gladstone now! It is safe to say that, if he and John Bright had stood in their places in Parliament in 1899, there either would have been no Boer war, or the Government that brought it on by its mistaken or malicious diplomacy would long ere this have been hurled from power. Even so virulent an opponent of Gladstone as the *Spectator*, now admits that the lack of a leader of his commanding qualities and high moral enthusiasm is what keeps the Liberal party low.

Say what men will, wars like that in the Transvaal and our own with Spain are political wars. The Boer war was a Conservative war, as Gen. Grosvenor truly warned the silly Democrats in Congress that the Spanish war would be a Republican war. There was, of course, in either case, a loud appeal to "patriotism," and much talk of sinking party differences at the water's edge; but the party in power saw to it that the war should intrench it in power. This is always the result of a foreign war. Voters being what they are, an Administration can never be turned out when it is able to charge its opponents with being enemies of the country. "A vote for the Liberals is a vote for the Boers," shrieks Mr. Chamberlain, and his analogous humbugs in this country have only to cry, " A vote for the Democrats is a vote for Aguinaldo," and the thing is done. The English Liberals were not so unspeakably stupid, on the eve of the Boer war, as our Democrats were on the verge of the war with Spain. They did not, that is, fairly drive their party opponents into a war which infallibly meant their own political destruction. But they were gravely at fault, from the standpoint of mere party strategy, for not having more stoutly opposed Chamberlain's tortuous diplomacy, and shown so strong a front that even Kruger could have seen that his best hope lay in the honorable purposes of English Liberalism, and not in his ultimatum—that blunder worse than a crime. Even Mr. Asquith has confessed the party's sins in this particular, and said with emphasis that the consent of the Liberals to the hushing up of the Jameson-raid scandal was an awful dereliction in public duty.

However this may be, it is the war which has laid the Liberals flat on their backs, and there is little hope of their getting up till peace comes. This is not saying that Lord Salisbury's Government is popular. Even the faithful London *Times* tells him that his Ministry is "justly" complained of for coming so far short of public expectations. There is something very like a Tory revolt. Members will not attend the House. On a critical division the other night the Government majority fell to 28. The Prime Minister urges his followers not to prefer dinner to staying in the House to vote for Government measures; but one of the said followers retorts that he was only imitating the "excellent example" of Lord Salisbury's own sons, and four other members of the Government, who left Mr. Balfour in the lurch. It is clear that, if the war were to end next week, the Government as it stands to-day could not live. Even the war cannot for ever save the Tories. If they are not able, with 200,000 men, to force the 15,000 remaining Boers to come to terms, English Jingoes themselves will soon insist upon bringing in a party to do better than that.

INDEPENDENCE DAY IN PORTO RICO.

SAN JUAN, July 9, 1901.

The Porto Rican may or may not have a capacity for democratic government, but his

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capacity for innocent enjoyment is certainly as great as that of any other man. This year the Municipal Council of San Juan decided to celebrate the day of Saint John the Baptist, the patron saint of the city. The city is finding a little difficulty at present in paying salaries, it is true, and the old debt is being refunded as it matures, instead of being paid off, while the complaint of lack of work is not uncommon—but these are mere trifles when the celebration of a saint's day is in question. Saint John's Day comes on June 24. In order to get a fair start the fiesta was begun June 10, and, in order not to dismiss Saint John with unseemly haste, was carried over until the last day of June. When, towards the end of June, it was announced that the American Government had a little celebration of their own in reserve, the municipal fiesta was prolonged until the Fourth of July to avoid invidious distinctions between the saints of the Church and the signers of the Declaration of Independence. The fiesta, it is to be understood, was no common affair. A formal—and a printed—programme of amusements was provided for every day from the 10th of June on, and, to add the proper dash of abandon, the municipal ordinances were relaxed so that fakirs' booths sprang up all over the city, and the faro banks and roulette tables dropped for the time their customary pretence of concealment. Promptly, upon the 5th day of July, the booths were dismantled, and the gambling houses gave evidence of a delightful spirit of self-restraint and respect for the proprieties by putting up the accustomed screens.

With such an entirely adequate period of training, San Juan could scarcely help making the celebration of Independence Day a complete—and a replete—success. At nine in the morning there was an imposing parade; at ten, the Legislative Assembly convened in special session to pass the resolution that will make free trade between Porto Rico and the United States. In the afternoon there were patriotic speeches and appropriate exercises at the theatre, a regatta, a reception by the Governor, and a baseball game for a prize of fifty dollars between a Porto Rican and an American team. The event of the day *par excellence* was, of course, the passage of the resolution which, in accordance with the terms of the Foraker Act, will establish free trade between Porto Rico and the United States; but the cordiality and unanimity with which the native population joined in the celebration of the holiday have also a real significance. This coöperation is in a measure doubtless to be explained by the perennial readiness of the Porto Rican to celebrate for celebration's sake; they have an innate genius for the fiesta. On the other hand, no gravely dissatisfied people could have entered so heartily into the spirit of the day. The Porto Ricans undoubtedly cherish a mild dissatisfaction with certain policies of the Government. Their publicists and littérateurs, for instance, express a certain objective and speculative dissent from the principles laid down in the recent decisions of the Supreme Court, and the politicians are somewhat disturbed over the number of Americans occupying public offices; the banks which were to distribute the loan, and the farmers who were to share it among themselves, are somewhat dissatisfied because the Treasurer has repeatedly thwarted the project to loan several millions of the public moneys to the farmers and planters of the island; while the property-holders are a little resentful because the pleasant policy—instituted by the Military Government—of abolishing old Spanish taxes without replacing them with new ones has not been indefinitely continued. But the people—particularly the people whose good will is worth while—are satisfied. And they should be satisfied. The men who have been appointed to administer the Government are on the average abler men, probably, than the corresponding officers in any State of the United States. And the first year of civil government has been one of which the American may well be proud, and with which the Porto Rican may well be content.

Mistakes of a minor character have undoubtedly been made—most of them errors of omission rather than of commission. The original Code Commission, for instance, has been a lamentable and acknowledged fizzle—no other word so well describes its fussy failure. Owing to its inactivity, the last legislative session expired without a municipal-government bill or a land-title system—two of the most urgent reforms needed in Porto Rico. But, taking into consideration the intrinsic difficulties of the situation and our inexperience in colonial government, the success of the civil government of Porto Rico has been little less than extraordinary. In the difficulties caused by the hurricane and the change of sovereignty, relief has been provided with a generous hand, but the people have not been pauperized; at the cost of considerable popularity, the Government has kept steadily before the people the fact that self-government means self-support. Between the wealthy planters or large corporations and the ignorant peasant class which is fast learning the assertive tone of "triumphant democracy," the Administration has preserved an admirable balance, insisting firmly that the former should pay for special benefits received, but taking good care, by their sane and equitable management of large interests, that the investment of capital should not be discouraged. After a year's careful study of the needs of Porto Rico and of the policies in accordance with which the Government is attempting to satisfy these needs, I cannot discover where the Administration has made an important, positive mistake. And, I may add, I am aware of no circumstance or prepossession, either political or personal, which would operate to bias my opinion in this matter.

The passage of the resolution for free trade, to return to the events of Independence Day, was the only act of the Legislative Assembly at the special session, and was performed with all the solemnity which the Latin-American so easily assumes. The Governor read his message in person before the Executive Council, and the House of Delegates convened in joint session, but the resolution was introduced separately into the two chambers by the chairmen of the respective finance committees—Señor Luis Sanchez Morales in the House, and Treasurer Hollander in the Council. The passage of the resolution was publicly announced by a salute of seventeen guns fired from the fine old fortress of San Christobal.

The recent decisions of the Supreme Court, together with the passage of the resolution establishing free trade between Porto Rico and the United States, suggest the propriety of a few words about the much-abused Foraker Act, from the standpoint of the Porto Rican Government and its financial needs. The larger constitutional significance of the act need not be taken into consideration here, nor the motives which, from the above standpoint, made Congress both wise and generous in its treatment of the Porto Rican people. But, whatever the motives that inspired it, and whatever its effect upon the policy and future prosperity of the American Union, the Foraker Act for the Porto Ricans was legislation of the most thoughtful and adequate character. The act was generous because it set aside for the use and benefit of Porto Rico two profitable sources of revenue which, under ordinary circumstances, are reserved for the Federal Government—the total customs collections in Porto Rico, and the customs collected in the United States upon imports from Porto Rico. It was wise, because it placed Porto Rico upon a unique basis by making the internal-revenue laws inoperative in Porto Rico, and by permitting the insular Government to levy and collect a system of excise taxes of its own devising. These were the compensations and, in a degree, the results of the 15 per cent. tariff that so keenly agitated the sympathies of the people of the United States. But in so far as that tariff placed Porto Rico upon a colonial instead of the customary Territorial basis, it was a most fortunate thing for the pocketbooks of the Porto Ricans. The insular budget amounts to about two million dollars a year. Of this it is calculated that five hundred thousand dollars will come from the property tax, seven hundred and fifty thousand from the excise taxes, and a similar amount from the customs collections in Porto Rico. The last two items, constituting three-fourths of the total receipts, are Federal revenues, and, so far as I know to the contrary, are allotted to no other local government under the jurisdiction of Congress.

As for the fifteen per cent. tariff, *per se*, it was sorely needed at the time it was imposed. The condition of the finances immediately preceding the passage of the Foraker Act was graphically described by Treasurer Hollander in his speech introducing the resolution of July 4. After sketching the financial system of the Spanish Government, he said:

"With the American Government came important fiscal changes. Public expenditures were restricted to public needs; customs duties on food stuffs were removed; stamp taxes were repealed, and *consumo* taxes abolished. But the reforms effected were, from the nature of things, essentially negative. The need for revenues continued as great as before, for schools and roads became prompt claimants for what had theretofore gone to State and Church. Old taxes had been boldly swept away, but no new sources of revenue had been provided. Month after month witnessed increasing expenditures, declining revenues, and more and more alarming deficits. Moreover, unfortunate policies had been inaugurated with respect to the citizens' part in the support of the Government, and countenance given for the assumption that Porto Rico was to remain a financial appanage of the United States."

With increasing deficits and a people fast learning to believe that American freedom meant freedom from taxation, the fifteen per cent. tariff not only brought a welcome addition to the public revenue, but provided a powerful incentive to the adoption of a system of direct taxes, the condition precedent to the establishment of free trade. Most important of all, however, it served

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to maintain the volume of imports from foreign countries intact, and thus kept the customs collections at their normal amount. The Foraker Act may have shunted the car of American progress upon a new and dangerous path, but, together with the "Two Million Refunding Act," it has placed Porto Rico upon a financial basis of unexcelled security. Of the two-million-dollar refund, more than seven hundred thousand dollars remain untouched, which, in accordance with the fixed policy of the Government, will be devoted to permanent public improvements, the cost of which in ordinary States or Territories would be defrayed by long-time loans. Porto Rico has no debt, and in all probability will have none for some time to come. The current customs collections in Porto Rico, as stated above, are used to meet the ordinary expenses of the Government. But of the customs duties collected in the United States upon imports from Porto Rico no part was used during the last fiscal year, so that an additional emergency fund of more than six hundred thousand dollars is held in the Federal Treasury for the use and benefit of the people of Porto Rico. It is these reserve funds which place beyond all doubt the financial wisdom of abandoning the fifteen per cent. tariff.

With these facts in mind, it is not difficult to understand why the decisions of the Supreme Court aroused no resentment and practically no comment in Porto Rico. For the same reasons, the Republican or any other party in Porto Rico that makes "statehood" a real plank in its official platform, will breed its own destruction; statehood will not repay Porto Rico for the withdrawal of the two sources of revenue which now contribute seventy-five per cent. of the public revenue. And the same facts, together with the fervid habit of speech characteristic of the Porto Rican, explain how Dr. Barbosa, the leader of the Republican party and probably the most representative man in Porto Rico, could call Senator Foraker "the idol of the Porto Ricans." The Porto Rican, it may be said, is running after strange gods; but his action, at least, is not wholly irrational.

Two other aspects of the resolution are worthy of mention: In the first place, it completes the programme of financial reform begun in the "Hollander Bill," and puts an end to the old Spanish fiscal system, with its public lottery, its octrois or *consumo* taxes, its royal dues, its taxes upon exports, its appropriation for the Church, the Colonial Office, and the army and navy, its farming out of taxes, and its widespread administrative corruption. The burden of taxation that fell principally upon the peon, the consumer of "drink, food, and fuel"—which the municipalities were also specifically authorized to tax—has been shifted upon the property-owner and the consumers of tobacco and rum. In the last case the increased tax has taken the form, not of a higher retail price, but of a little more water in the too frequent dram.

Most important of all, the resolution probably means that the whole trade of Porto Rico will eventually go to the United States; that the rice and codfish, candles, cement, butter, cheese, cottons and woollens, shoes, and iron manufactures, which now constitute the principal imports from foreign countries, will in time be supplied by American manufacturers. And to the Porto Rican planter the importance of free trade can scarcely be exaggerated. The passage of this resolution, said Treasurer Hollander, in his speech before the Executive Council, "will result in a virtual bounty of five dollars on every ton of sugar raised on the island, meaning to the sugar interests alone upon a product of one hundred thousand tons a gift of five hundred thousand dollars—more than is raised by every kind of insular property taxation in the island." And what is true of the sugar interests is also true, though in less degree, of the tobacco and fruit interests.

Was it a troubled conscience that made Congress deal with Porto Rico so wisely and so well? I have attempted to state facts, not analyze motives. 'Tis an ill wind that blows nobody good.

CARLO CATTANEO.

FLORENCE, June 23, 1901.

In the first year of the nineteenth century Carlo Cattaneo first saw the light, on June 15, 1801, in Milan, where his father, a jeweller, the son of a long line of warriors and peasants, had settled down, the first of his race to become a citizen, as all his forbears had cultivated the soil and his own grandfather came with his own flocks from the Brembana valley (the birthplace of Tasso) to pasture them during the winter in the vast fields that then surrounded Milan. This Melchiorre Cattaneo took to wife Maria Antonia Sangiorgi, a beautiful peasant woman to whom Carlo owed his well-proportioned and robust frame, his spacious brow, luminous blue eyes, and the honest, patriarchal simplicity which was one of his distinguishing characteristics. And to-day, the first centenary of the son's birth (the strikes in Milan compelling postponement from the 15th), his native city inaugurates a monument in marble sculptured by the celebrated Ettore Ferrari, who has executed monuments to Garibaldi, the finest, to Victor Emanuel and Giordano Bruno, with charming medallions of Mazzini, Alberto Mario, and other factors of New Italy.

On this same anniversary, too, is published the tenth and last volume of the writings of the great Lombard, who certainly has never been a prophet in his own country. Though recognized as the greatest political economist, as a profound and original philosopher, an authority on all questions of literature and language by the thinkers of his own and more recent times, such was the envy, hatred, and all uncharitableness which his patriotic and political action in 1848-'9 brought down upon him that, for twelve years after his death, Agostino Bertani, the surgeon soldier and the devoted friend of Cattaneo, who had purchased the manuscripts and copyright of his works, could find no publisher to bring out even the non-political works of the greatest thinker of his age in Italy. At length the successors of the well-known publisher Le Monnier agreed to publish the philosophical, literary, and social-science writings, and Bertani edited three volumes before he passed away in 1886. To your correspondent fell the task of preparing the remaining volumes agreed upon, and to find a publisher for the political writings and the correspondence. Alberto Mario had completed the 'Mind of Cattaneo' before his own death in 1883, and Niccola Mameli (brother of the soldier poet Goffreddo Mameli, who died for Rome in 1849) offered to edit the philosophical works—a most difficult task, as Cattaneo had never been able to publish these in volumes. Some of them appeared in the *Politecnico*, in the *Crepuscolo*; and perhaps the most important portion, his lectures to the students of the Lugano Lyceum, where he held the professor's chair for fifteen years, had to be pieced out of his manuscripts and collated with the copies written out by his best pupils. Gabriele Rosa, a stanch follower of Cattaneo's political doctrines, a federal republican, wrote the preface to the works of Political (or, as Cattaneo styled it, Public) Economy, and thus seven volumes in all were completed by 1892. But never a publisher could be found to risk an edition of the political writings and the letters. The Milanese *Consorteria*—I use the word in preference to that of "Moderates," of whom there have been and are many honest, intelligent, patriotic, spread over all Italy—had created such a sorry legend around his name that it had become a synonym for disunion, a return to the communes and little republics of the Middle Ages, the extermination of Piedmont, etc. No inducement—the offer of the manuscripts gratis, put in order, copied, and ready for the press—could persuade a single publisher to risk the mere expenses of printing a single volume.

Nor did the friends and soi-disant disciples of the dead master come forward, as might have been expected, to save his memory from oblivion. At last we remembered a federal republican so stanch to his loves and hates that nothing would induce Enrico Cernuschi (him of bimetallic fame) to live in Italy under a united monarchy! To him at Paris we went, and found the hero of the barricades of the five days of Milan, the stanch defender of the Roman Republic (who was kept a prisoner by France in the Castel S. Angelo for many months after the restoration of the Pope), aged beyond recognition, with a cloud of silver-white hair surrounding a pale and thoughtful face, where the old light flamed in the dark-brown eyes, and the old impetuosity echoed in the question, "Why cast pearls before swine? Publishers are excellent thermometers. If none will print, all are convinced that no one will purchase the volumes when issued. Then, as likely as not, the Government will sequestrate the heresies, and the Triple Consorteria will privately cremate the volumes." At length, however, Cernuschi consented to pay the expenses of printing one volume. Some copies did sell, and he added sufficient to print another. Then he too died, in 1897, and in the same year the bright, brave Gabriel Rosa went to his rest. Last year Niccola Mameli joined the ranks of the Old Guard; it really seemed as if the tenth and last volume would not find a sponsor in the land where the "sì suona." This last volume was in reality half through the press in 1898 when the "events of May," as the mysterious revolts in Milan and the pretended revolution in Florence are euphemistically styled, made it certain that all and any political works would come still-born into a world where Republicans, Radicals, Socialists were in durance vile. So the first sheets were stereotyped and laid on the shelf.

In the June number of the *Nuova Antologia* of 1900 appeared a letter from Senator Prof. Graziadio Ascoli to Prof. L. F. Pulle, headed

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"Carlo Cattaneo and Historical Studies," in which the writer asks the author of the 'Profilo Antropologico dell' Italia' (a work which, with its splendid atlas, received the prize medal of the anthropological and ethnological Italian Society of Florence) whether Cattaneo has not suffered from a singular and most unmerited oblivion:

"He was one of the first to dwell on statistical considerations of a descriptive as of an inductive order, and to apply them with well-determined aims to the study of the genesis and the development of nations and of languages. One of his dominating thoughts was to ascertain the numbers of the human race among whom and by whom the grand phenomena and the great events of history have been developed. He was perpetually tormented by the question, How many were they; how far homogeneous, how and in what numbers heterogeneous and in conflict? Surely, it is our duty fully to illustrate this work of Cattaneo; but who will or can do this at the present moment if you don't set yourself to the task? I remember, how, proceeding methodically from the positive to the conjectural, he noted how in England the scant but continuous German immigration assimilated a portion of the indigenous population, *i. e.*, the Celtic, also scanty, and how thence issued in the course of fourteen centuries the greatest people in the world! [Indeed, from the first to the last day of our privileged intimacy, Cattaneo used to say: "Anglo-Saxon race is tautological; you are Anglo-Celts, Anglo-Britons."] Thence he rose up to higher considerations, divining the proportions of the crossbreeds by dint of which the language of the Aryans spread itself among the ancient peoples. No one has done so much, it seems to me, to sweep away from history all the fables and illusions engendered under the name of 'the great transmigrations of the peoples.' His conceptions touching the relative fixity of races, of the propagation of species and of culture in the infinite course of time, quieted the imaginary tumult of nations which fantasy imagined to be immensely populous and mixed up together from prehistoric ages."

Then for several pages the learned Professor goes on to vindicate for Cattaneo "his right to be considered the discoverer of certain truths in almost all branches of science, which have now become common property. The supreme wisdom of Cattaneo shone forth when he, first of all, collocated the study of the natural conditions of man with that of their civil conditions. In this field he displays a magic skill all his own, and, as an ethnologist and an original and perfect master of style, he ranks with Alexander von Humboldt [before him in point of time, we venture to add]." His admirable publication on the island of Sardinia, ancient and modern, though written sixty years since, needs scarcely any addition to-day. Here Professor Ascoli dilates on Cattaneo's enormous superiority in historical speculations over Gioberti, Balbo, and other historians of his own time; how, even when reviewing foreign works, such as the 'Norman Conquest,' he surpassed by long strides the great French historian in the ethnological stratification of the conquered country.

"In short, there is no field of universal history where the appreciating eyes of this original thinker failed to penetrate. He is generally placed among the economists on account of his notable writings in this department. But who to-day could venture to decide what ground his inventive and reconstructive mind most splendidly illuminated? I have no claim to the casting vote, but this I can affirm, conscious of no want of reverence for any one worthy of it, that the large and modern conception of history has in Italy no champion who can compete with or come near to Cattaneo."

The appearance of this heartfelt, enthusiastic rehabilitation of Italy's forgotten one was heart-gladdening as a spring of fresh water in a dry and dreary desert. The last third volume was ready for publication—would Pulle really accept the office of sponsor? A genial visit and cordial acceptance followed the appeal, and in a *proemio* of thirty pages the Italians have at least an index to the works of Cattaneo prepared by a young thinker of the present generation who has not been drawn into the vortex of political opportunism or the grib-grab of speculation. Poor Foscolo's sad yet now fulfilled prophecy heads the preface—"Se un dì verra l'Italia vera—io avrò giudice pia."

"The fate of Carlo Cattaneo's works," writes Pulle, "is instructive for the history of Italian thought and for our civic life. That man who reigned as sovereign over the spirit of the past generation, who matured the minds and armed the avenging hand in the days of national revolution, became invisible, vanished as it were from the sight of the next generation which reaped the fruits of the accomplished work. Like one of the granite giants which in hospitable Switzerland sheltered his austere soul during the declining years of his life and his earthly hopes, Cattaneo awaited on the heights the light which the fog at the base must fail to obscure in the future. The memory of that great one suffered from what is the perpetual misfortune of Italy, the non-recognition of the absolute value of genius when it does not respond to the opportuneness of momentary contingencies. The Cattaneo whose eagle glance scrutinized and, partially, from Milan delineated the lines of the universal movement of the peoples of Europe in 1848, was no longer at the helm after 1859, when action was directed to the aims of men who had not the supreme interest of the people at heart. He shared the fate of Mazzini and Garibaldi, and now Time unites them in a harmonious triad. A thinker and an exile, he kept apart from the daily contagion of surrounding influences. Over his grand personality, which remained inflexible and uncontaminated, silence spread her mantle. Partisan ire, whether proceeding from discordant schools or from political interests, is all-powerful over the fate of writers. The want of culture and the non-participation of the masses in intellectual movements in the past [alas, also in the present], placed the monopoly of fame in the power of the few dominating individuals and parties. The broad basis of collective opinion, the result of a number of many individual and independent judgments, which offers natural resistance to authoritative affirmations and keeps a fair balance for the merits of men, is wanting in Italy. The conscious association of thought which Cattaneo understood and defined as the 'psychology of associated minds,' is also wanting; yet it is, in a nation, the seat of its moral independence, a bulwark against injustice, an impediment to all attacks on civil liberties as on scientific truth. The extension of education and of culture tending to the creation of a collective conscience in the Italian people is, however, preparing the medium in which Cattaneo's real value will be recognized."

The learned professor brings proofs and documents to show that Cattaneo laid the basis for modern studies; how, in the science which with F. Ratzel assumes the form and the name of anthropo-geography, Cattaneo forty years since revealed the outlines, even as he delineated the aspects of sociological geography. "Nothing, perhaps, lends credence to the solidity of his knowledge and the perspicacity of his deductions concerning the relations of primitive races so much as does the comparison of his propositions with the conclusions of the most recent and authoritative ethnological studies on the Irish, the Scottish Gaels, and on the early Britons"; and here we have a résumé of the 'Races of Europe' of the American, William Z. Ripley, compared with Cattaneo's writings of sixty years ago, on the 'Historical Commencement of European Languages: On the Language and the Laws of the Celts.' "Compare them," he cries, "and you will be astounded at his divination, the lucidity of his knowledge and his dialectics!" Later on he places him among the predecessors of Darwin, quoting an article of Cattaneo's on the "Types of the Human Race," which we expressly asked Pulle to notice, knowing as we did that the solitary hermit, too poor to purchase books or even to subscribe to a scientific library, never read either Darwin or Huxley, whose works were unknown in Italy until 1866-7. One of Cattaneo's expressions is forcibly his own: "Truly, in the bosom of eternity, there is no penury of time. The nebulous geological epochs in the graduated light of analysis go on separating and multiplying. *The sublime hypothesis of continuous evolution reveals itself in that light.* The progress of humanity mirrors itself in the progress of the universe. On the astonished mind flashes the continuity of creation, the eternity of omnipotence."

If the sad, weary, solitary Lombard whose monument is at this moment unveiled on his pedestal to the public gaze, could speak to the assembled multitude, would his words be of gratitude or of admonition? The latter, we think. He knew that he had truth with him, not only in scientific matters, but in matters political, and assuredly he could not be satisfied with his Italy of to-day. This, not because his ideal of a Federal republic has not been yet realized, but because morality has not been enthroned in high places, because, instead of an armed nation, a people simply taught to wield arms in its own defence, millions are squandered in standing armies and military fleets, because the possessors of the soil, capital, and the instruments of labor have persistently shown themselves greedy in adding to their stores, heedless of the starving millions who rot in their rice fields, go mad with pellagra, send out their children by thousands to seek a better fate in foreign lands; because fifty years of this persistent ignoring of the suffering and misery around them by the cultured and wealthy classes have driven the people into the arms of the extreme factions, whose leaders have no better watchword for their new departure than class struggle, no better solution than strikes which have never reached such a point in numbers and intensity in any country of Europe. No! I doubt whether Cattaneo would care for the tribute of honor paid to him in the Italy which is not the Italy of his dreams. Yet it is well that such honors should be paid to the man whose life was stainless and blameless, even as his thoughts were high, and his action, when compelled to take his place as *Duce*, audacious, firm, and victorious. In the bas-relief of the pedestal, Ettore Ferrari has recorded the epic moment of the defence when Cattaneo, twice offered an armistice by Radetzki, thundered out, "No!" even as did Pier Capponi and Michelangelo in earlier times. J. W. M.

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Correspondence.

PREFERENCES IN BANKRUPTCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In commenting, in your issue of July 4, upon the recent decision of the United States Supreme Court concerning preferences in bankruptcy, you illustrate the effect of the decision as follows:

"If A sells to B a bill of goods amounting to $2,000, and is paid in cash, and thereupon sells him another bill of goods for $4,000, on ninety days' credit, within which time B goes into bankruptcy, A becomes a preferred creditor. If he proposes to claim his $4,000, he must give up his $2,000. If he wants to keep his $2,000, he must give up his $4,000."

This is not quite accurate, as it loses sight of another provision of the Bankruptcy Act, which allows credits extended without security after payments are made to be set off against the payments (Bankruptcy Act, sec. 60, C). Thus, if A sells to B a bill of goods amounting to $2,000, and is paid in cash, and thereupon sells him another bill of goods for $4,000 on ninety days' credit, within which time B goes into bankruptcy, A, though a preferred creditor to the extent of $2,000, can set off $2,000 out of the new credit of $4,000 against that payment, and still prove his claim for $4,000 due him. This was decided by the Circuit Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit in McKey vs. Lee, 3 N. B. N., 262. This provision of the Bankruptcy Act was not involved in the decision of the Supreme Court referred to.

If the second credit of $4,000 had preceded the payment of $2,000, then, under the Supreme Court decision, there would be no offset, and A would be obliged, as you suggest, to choose between losing the $4,000 still due and retaining the $2,000 paid, or restoring the $2,000 received and then proving his claim against the estate for $6,000, which would be the total amount of the debt due him.

Yours truly, ISAAC ADLER.

ROCHESTER, N. Y., July 8, 1901.

CHRISTIAN MISSIONS IN CHINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The interest in Christian missions to China is so general that I venture to ask the privilege of presenting a phase of the subject which may have been overlooked by some of your readers.

(1.) Through steam and electricity all parts of the world have been brought so close together that now the Western nations and China are, in the most literal sense of the term, neighbors.

(2.) Where two or more individuals, communities, or peoples of different standards of morality and civilization are brought into close contact, one of two things certainly follows: either the one with the higher standard sinks towards the level of the lower, or the more debased is raised towards the level of the higher.

(3.) The natural tendency is towards the degradation of the higher, since to resist the demoralizing influence of the lower civilization requires conscious and vigorous effort.

(4.) Granting these propositions, to the truth of which recent events in China have borne abundant proof, it necessarily follows that this new condition of neighborhood with the Chinese people is a serious menace to the civilization of the Western nations—a menace which will increase in strength with every improvement in ships and their engines, with the building of transcontinental railways, and with the growth of trade.

(5.) A problem of surpassing importance, therefore, is forced upon us for solution. How shall this inevitable debasing influence be most effectively resisted? How shall these four hundred millions with a low standard of morality be brought to recognize the force of and obey the great principles of respect for truth and for woman and for the sacredness of human life which underlie Western civilization? To remain inactive, quiescent, is to be conquered. Is the solution to be found in force? If this were practicable, the expense in life and treasure, the demoralizing effects on those who employ it as well as on the subjugated, would be sufficient to condemn it. But a morality gained only by force is superficial, and will last only as long as the force is applied.

In education? This method again, if it were practicable, would be vastly expensive, for it implies, not the establishment of a school or university here and there, but a school in every village, and there is not motive power enough to provide teachers, even if the money were forthcoming. But a fundamental objection is that the mere education of Eastern peoples takes from them their religious belief without giving them anything in its place, and the result is a community of persons morally weak and characterless.

In Christian missions? This method of influence is the only one which goes directly down to the root of the great material evil of all non-Christian civilizations, the degradation of women, and lifts the mother and her child to the level of the mother and child in Christian lands. It is the only method which has the strongest conceivable motive power, that of disinterested love. It is the cheapest, for thousands stand ready to do the work for no other reward than the privilege of doing it, and millions stand ready to furnish them with the necessary means.

From this point of view, therefore, I cannot escape the conviction that Christian missions in China are of vital importance, not to the Chinese merely, but to ourselves, as the only efficient means by which we can keep the high standard of our civilization. JAMES MASCARENE HUBBARD.

BREAD LOAF INN, VT., July 10, 1901.

INDIAN SUMMER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Any information that your readers can furnish in regard to the history of the origin of the term "Indian Summer," especially previous to the year 1800, will be gratefully acknowledged if sent either to Prof. Cleveland Abbe, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., or to the undersigned.

ALBERT MATTHEWS,

145 BEACON ST., BOSTON, MASS.

Notes.

Lee & Shepard announce for September 'Gail Hamilton's Life in Letters,' edited by H. Augusta Dodge, and 'Among Flowers and Trees with Poets,' an anthology compiled by Minnie Curtis Wait and Prof. Merton Channing Leonard.

'The Stars in Song and Legend,' by Prof. Jermain G. Porter, Director of the Cincinnati Observatory, is soon to be published by Ginn & Co.

A work on 'Irrigation,' by Dr. F. H. Newell of the United States Geological Survey, is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

'Foma Gordeyeff,' by the new Russian novelist, Gorky, translated by Hermann Bernstein, is among the fall announcements of the J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Company.

That indefatigable Baconian, Edwin Bormann, much the most interesting of his tribe, is to print in the autumn twelve literary-historical-biographical essays under the title of 'Die Kunst des Pseudonyms.' (He is his own publisher in Leipzig.) His thesis is that if William Shakspere is the pseudonym of Francis Bacon, Bacon's name must appear on the title-pages of Shakspere's productions, "or in the immediate vicinity." An appendix cites numerous judgments of Bacon by his contemporaries. As usual (and this is a substantial return for the purchase money), there are seventy to eighty facsimile illustrations.

Cassell & Co. issue their annual collection of 'Royal Academy Pictures,' being the Royal Academy Supplement of the *Magazine of Art*, with a few pages of prefatory text. In all some three hundred illustrations of pictures and statues in the current Academy are given. Half-tone cuts, generally well executed, are the rule, but a photogravure frontispiece accompanies each of the five parts which make up the quarto volume. The value of the work for reference is clear enough. Of the pictures themselves nothing much is to be said except that they have for the most part the same old Royal Academy quality, and show almost everything but pictorial intention. National pride will be gratified that Mr. Abbey's melodramatic "Crusaders Sighting Jerusalem" occupies the place of honor at the front.

Prof. Edward Arber's series of "British Anthologies" is now completed with the publication of volume i., 'The Dunbar Anthology,' and volume x., 'The Cowper Anthology' (Henry Frowde). Extended comment upon these is unnecessary. In 'The Dunbar Anthology' Professor Arber's flower-gathering, so unpromising is the field, is rather surprisingly successful; and the final volume, rich in single instances from minor poets, is one of the most entertaining of all. We must, however, regret a thing which seems a curious lapse of taste: "The Ancient Mariner" is printed without its incomparable gloss.

It is for many reasons a cause for rejoicing that the day of the dry and dusty doctorate dissertation is passing. Some years ago Columbia University set the admirable example of encouraging its doctoral candidates to attempt the composition of readable books, in place of the conventional tabulations. The latest publication of the University Press (The Macmillan Co., agents) is 'Frédéric Mistral, Poet and Leader in Provence,' by Charles Alfred Downer. Dr. Downer has produced a serviceable and suggestive study of the somewhat exotic verse of Mistral, his revival of the old Provençal speech, and his endeavor in the direction of racial idealism. By a reasonable extension of the subject there is included a good account of the general work of the "Félibres"

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who have striven to revive the old renown of Provence in poetry and art. The attentive reader may, indeed, note certain blemishes which would never have occurred in a thesis of the old school. An accurate philological chapter on "The Modern Provençal Language" is oddly contrasted with some rather sentimental and precious pages in which appellations like "epic" and adjectives like "beautiful" are loosely applied to Mistral's pleasantly romantic tales in verse. The book is, however, as a whole, a good piece of scholarship and a sympathetic literary study. It should be of special interest to persons concerned with the problems of "national literature."

Altogether charming is Mr. Almon Dexter's 'And the Wilderness Blossomed' (Philadelphia: H. W. Fisher & Co.), in which he describes the conquest of an island in one of the Maine lakes. Of great value to many amateurs will be found the list of hardy plants and the observations on their culture which Mr. Dexter has made. He has evidently been overcome by the enchantment of gardening, and he certainly makes it appear enchanting. His comprehensive invitation to flower-lovers gives a pleasant finish to a book which deserves a longer notice than we can now afford it.

'Peace or War in South Africa,' by A. M. S. Methuen (London: Methuen & Co.), is a temperate but extremely impressive arraignment of the policy of England towards the Boers. It is all the more effective because the author gave his support to the Ministerial party until he became convinced that he was mistaken. The comparison with the attitude of the British Government towards the American colonies, and the quotations from Burke, are also telling. On the whole, this is perhaps as good a summary of the events in South Africa which were decisive as has appeared; and the tone of its comment is high and clear. It is hard not to believe that such an appeal must move the English public; but our own recent history promotes skepticism.

A satisfactory manual on 'Small-Boat Sailing' is that by E. F. Knight (E. P. Dutton & Co.). It will prove of practical service to the amateur sailor of small boats of all kinds, from the dinghey to the ten-ton cutter or yawl. It is generally agreed by professionals that books of instruction are of slight value in the acquisition of seamanship. This is mainly true, but exception must be made in favor of Mr. Knight's clear and comprehensive treatise. Twenty years ago a publication of this character, devoted as it is to the management of small boats employed exclusively in foreign waters, would have been of hardly any use to American amateurs. The frequency, however, of international yachting contests, and the number of foreign craft of all sorts now owned and sailed by Americans, contribute to the opportuneness of Mr. Knight's manual. It explains plainly and lucidly all that the amateur need know in regard to the choice, rig, and handling of small boats. The author's remarks as to the use of the barometer and of weather wisdom as more or less essential to safety in sailing small craft, are worthy of attention. He has confidence also in official weather forecasts, so much so that on one occasion, despite the earnest protests of local mariners, and contrary to his own judgment, he started from Harwich, England, for Holland alone, in a three-ton yawl, in a gale of wind, on the strength of a special forecast of the British Meteorological Office that he should in a few hours meet with light S. W. winds, a smooth sea, and fine weather—a prediction accurately verified. Are there many who would trust our official weather forecasts to this extent? The illustrations, technical and pictorial, fortify and embellish the text.

Among law books recently published is an institutional 'Treatise on the Jurisprudence, Constitution, and Laws of the United States,' by James De Witt Andrews (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). Mr. Andrews is the editor of the works of James Wilson, and he declares that eminent lawyer to have been hitherto the only genuine expounder for American students of the true principles of legal analysis. "The plan he proposed is that of the civilian's, and the results worked out agree singularly with those of John Austin." We have no space to go into details, but may say briefly that much of Mr. Andrews's discussion is illuminating. His division is into the Laws of Persons, of Things, of Actions, and of Crimes; Constitutional and Public Law falling under the first head. Some five thousand cases are cited, and the work is preceded by an introduction on the development of the Science of Law and Government.

A more compendious book, covering the same ground, is the 'Elements of American Jurisprudence,' by William C. Robinson, the well-known author of a text-book on Elementary Law (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). He has cited two or three thousand cases, and each of his sections is accompanied by directions for reading. The book is evidently intended for the use of both teacher and student. The author's arrangement of the law is his own, but to our mind this is the least important point in the whole matter. The book should be regarded as a skeleton introduction to the law, and is very nearly readable. We should think it would be found of great use in schools and colleges. Here and there mistakes and omissions may be found. We cannot consider any book of American law complete which does not contain a clear account of the history of the common-law actions. Thus far there have been no really great American or English lawyers who have not known the difference between trespass and trespass on the case. Section 260, on the amendment and abrogation of treaties, ought to contain some reference to the remarkable fact that we maintain in this country the right to abrogate a treaty by an act of Congress. This is jurisprudence purely American. Considering, too, how common penal bonds still are, we could have wished an explanation of the nature of this instrument. May we, by the way, take this opportunity of pointing out, *pace* all modern institutional writers, that *act* and *forbearance* are not really true opposites? *Forbearance*, as is here explained, means a voluntary omission to act. But *act* is used every day without any implication as to will. No one, for instance, would deny that sleep-walking involved a variety of acts: but sleep-walking does not involve the action of the will. *Omission* is the only proper antithesis of *act*, and has excellent authority for its use; if an opposite for the Saxon *forbearance* were wanted, it must be found, we incline to think, in some other Saxon word like *deed*. But the difficulty here is that *deed* is already appropriated to another use. All this we submit with deference, but with confidence, to legal institutional etymologists.

'Explorations in Alaska for an All-American Overland Route from Cook Inlet, Pacific Ocean, to the Yukon, by Lieut. Joseph S. Herron,' is the title of a recent Government publication. Lieut. Herron, with a party of five men, left Cook Inlet on June 9, 1899, and travelled 340 miles with a pack train. The remaining 171 were accomplished on snow-shoes with dogs and sleds, and the great river was reached December 11. So far as can be gathered from the account of the journey, the difficulties of this new route do not seem to be much, if any, greater than those of the other routes. From his experience Lieut. Herron is inclined to think that the cheapest method of transport is first the mule, then the horse and dog.' The reindeer is a failure in this part of Alaska, partly from the lack of moss, its principal food, and its inability to travel on the ice. The report is fully illustrated, and contains lists of native tribes, plants, and maps of the regions traversed.

The United States Board on Geographic Names has issued a special report giving about 4,000 "coastwise" names in the Philippine archipelago. The editor, Capt. C. C. Todd, acknowledges the valuable assistance given by the Rev. José Algue, S.J., director of the Jesuit Observatory at Manila. The names are in black-face type, and are followed by the Spanish designation of the features named, as, Acul, *punta*.

"Aboriginal Rock Pictures in Queensland" is the title of a brief paper by R. H. Mathews in the current Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society. Mr. Mathews describes certain drawings cut upon flat sandstone rocks in the channel of the Burnett River at its junction with Pine Creek. During the greater part of the year the rocks are dry, but in times of floods are wholly submerged. As a result, many of the drawings are scarcely distinguishable. The figures are small, varying from two inches to two feet in length, and represent native weapons, animals, and human feet, and include some nondescript designs. The mode of execution was to make a row of punctures along the outline of the drawing by means of a sharp piece of pointed stone, and subsequently chipping out the spaces between, thus making a complete groove around the outside of the drawing. The punctures, being deeper and wider than the other portions of the groove, are still discernible. Similar drawings have been found near Rawbelle on the Rawbelle River. They are cut in the dark, hard sandstone on the sides and bed of a watercourse. On the bank of the Leichhardt River, North Queensland, is a large rock containing aboriginal carvings of boomerangs, shields, and human hands. The rock, a kind of conglomerate, is gradually crumbling away under exposure to the weather, and some of the drawings have already disappeared.

—Readers of the *Nation* least of all need an introduction to Mr. Henry F. Waters's 'Genealogical Gleanings in England,' on which he has been engaged for eighteen years, and which have been printed with expert annotation in the quarterly *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. A portion of these, dealing with very eminent names, have been printed separately, but now we have the

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whole in two splendid octavo volumes issued by the New England Historic-Genealogical Society, Boston, with a frontispiece showing the noble face of the greatest of known searchers in the field of recorded human relationship. Here are the wills developing in the most abundant and convincing way a family connexion, with other evidence of individual origin and descent, such as shone brilliantly in the case of the Washington and Harvard pedigrees and of Roger Williams's nationality, and even (regarding England's especial domain) in the discovery of the wills of Alexander Selkirk (Robinson Crusoe) and of Thomas Hobson the carrier ("Hobson's choice"), and the burial entry of the widow of John Rogers, the martyr of Smithfield. But one must explore the great index to realize the wealth of information concerning leading families in our history, both North and South, though New England preponderates. In immediate relation with Harvard's foundation we encounter Boylston, Chauncy, Hollis, Holworthy, Mather, and Mowlson; and such other names as Bradstreet, Bromfield, Cotton, Downing, Dummer, Dyer, Eliot, Gardiner, Glover, Higginson, Hooker, Hutchinson, Pynchon, Quincy, Saltonstall, Sedgwick, Sherman, Vassall, Ward, Winthrop, and Yale. The wills are more than half-readable, viewed merely as inventories, while no one can forget the account of Mr. Waters's lighting upon the little paper which confirmed the Washington line beyond dispute. Mr. John T. Hassam supplies an introduction, and the worth of this extraordinary collection is further enhanced by a reprint of Dr. Toner's "Wills of the American Ancestors of Gen. George Washington," a table of the Court of Probate Calendars, and an index of places in addition to that of persons.

—The New York Historical Society prints in its collections for 1892 (just now published) the "Abstracts of Wills on File in the Surrogate's Office, City of New York, 1665-1707," and has thus performed a public service. Not only may this volume be consulted for the names of persons and places, but the inventories of property and items of bequest are full of interest for a study of the social customs of colonial days. Properties were, as a rule, small in size and largely personal. A will disposing of property to the value of £500 is the will of a wealthy personage, a man of some position in the community. By far the larger number of wills disposed of personal effects of small value, a lot of land and a few head of cattle. No household property was of so little importance as to be overlooked, as when a father left to his son "my best suit of clothes and a bed blanket," and to his daughter a scythe and a Bible. With land a right of "commonage" went. The mention of tools and implements is very infrequent, indicating that even the household industries were not considered important. In a few instances a "weaver's loom" is bequeathed, and in one case three such looms are named, an unusual number. The raw material and product—lambs' wool, yarn, and homespun cloth—are itemized in one will. Of other industries there is scant evidence, although some smith's tools, and a reference to the "Tinton Iron Works" of New Jersey in 1691, prove their existence. Labor was supplied by negroes and, less frequently, by Indians. The mode of valuing property, and the different currencies recognized, throw much light upon the economy of the settlement. Wampum was of importance, and was measured by so many "guilders." In 1691 a piece of eight was worth 12 guilders wampum. Of equal utility were beaver skins, the value of which was more difficult to determine. In 1677 a beaver was reckoned at 8 guilders, in 1698 a merchantable beaver was counted as 12 shillings. More complicated is a provision for "£100 in cattle, according to wheat at 5 shillings a bushel," although wheat was a recognized medium of exchange. When a ship-owner died leaving a certain share of a miscellaneous cargo, from spices up to negroes, the task of administering on the estate was by no means slight. It is possible, however, that merchantable produce was better than gold or silver, which are found in many forms and of diverse values. Gold dust is sometimes mentioned, and silver in plate was estimated at so many ounces. Currency involved some calculation, not only because of the variety of pieces passing, but also because of the light weight of the coins. In one estate the following were found: Spanish pistoles, guineas, Arabians, Arabian pieces of silver, Bank dollars and gold; the value of each being carefully itemized. There were also French pistoles (gold), double guineas and doubloons, Jacobuses, pieces of eight, "Arabian and Christian pieces of silver," and the local guilder, five of which were required to make one Holland guilder.

—Mr. Frank B. Sanborn's 'Emerson' differs from nearly all the other "Beacon Biographies" (Small, Maynard & Co.), in being deeply colored by the personal intimacy of the writer with his subject. Hence less of vague generalization, more of remembered incident and speech. There is the usual over-emphasis on the earlier life, as if Mr. Sanborn were not conscious of his restricted space until his book was half written and the story of Emerson's literary career hardly begun, with the beginning of his own acquaintance with Emerson far in the future. But, happily, there are many reflections back from this upon the earlier years. These and the later recollections give the sketch its principal importance. There is a critical opening, and some critical observations at the end, but the book is much richer for Emerson's traits and characteristics, and for his relations to Ellery Channing, Thoreau, and Alcott, than as a criticism of his genius. First of all, we are invited to admire the certainty with which we meet his thought on every road we take. That is fine self-praise where Emerson writes, "It is not the masters who spin the ostentatious continuity." Yet Mr. Sanborn regrets that Emerson did not earlier set about his 'Natural History of the Intellect,' which, in his old age, was formidable to him and disappointing, and broke his failing strength. There is not the exaggeration of Alcott's relation to Emerson that many will expect. But a notable tribute to Alcott in 'Nature' is pointed out, and there is no mistake where Alcott's account of Emerson's oratory is quoted, flowering at the top into some of Ellery Channing's most memorable lines. It is Mr. Sanborn's judgment that Emerson's anti-slavery action cost him more ostracism than his religious heresy. An interesting comment on Mr. Sanborn's extremely doubtful suggestion that Emerson left the pulpit because the Unitarians were a little sect, is Dr. Channing's remark, "If the Unitarians were not a little sect, I would not be a Unitarian."

—The London School of Economics and Political Science is doing good service by its publications as well as its lectures. The latest of its series of monographs deals with 'The Place of Compensation in Temperance Reform' (P. S. King & Son), and is written by C. P. Sanger, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and Barrister-at-Law. It approaches the subject from the lawyer's point of view, discussing first the meaning of vested rights, then the precedents for compensation, and lastly the special features of this particular case. The book will be useful as a record of the history of various proposals for the solution of this problem, and as a summary of the conflicting views that have been expressed concerning it. Temperance reformers, however, will probably complain that Mr. Sanger scarcely does justice to considerations that are more important than legal technicalities. The right handling of the drink traffic is one of the most urgent needs of English social life, but it is already evident that the Transvaal war has driven compensation out of practical politics. Either the saloon must be closed without compensation, or it must remain open, for it is not possible for the nation to bear any fresh impost. Patriotic Americans will read with mingled feelings the reason given by Mr. Sanger for neglecting, in his study of colonial and foreign precedents, to pay any attention to the United States: "To argue from the case of a nation whose legislatures enact laws which are not intended to be enforced, to the case of this country, would be fruitless. In addition to this, the practical certainty of renewal of a justice's license, which exists in England, is absent from a country in which the spoils system is an article of political faith. In short, the Americans are so fundamentally different from the English in habits and temperament that it is misleading to look to their legislation for the purpose of inferring the probable form which legislation may take in this country."

—Regarding population, surely never in times of peace has any other country had such a record as Ireland. A preliminary report of last April's census has appeared. (Parl. Paper Cd.—613). The population has within the past ten years declined 248,204 to 4,456,546. In 1841 it stood at 8,196,597. Scotland has now run ahead of her. Her population is less than it was a century ago, when it was about half the population of Great Britain—now perhaps one-tenth. Dublin proper, without some suburbs, is now smaller than Belfast, though, with its suburbs, it is slightly larger. Three counties—Dublin, Down, and Antrim—have increased in population from 7.3 to 7 per cent. The others have decreased, from Monaghan (13.6 per cent.) to Derry (5.1 per cent.). By provinces, Connaught has decreased 9.7, Munster 8.4, Leinster 3.5, Ulster 2.4 per cent. Of the total population, 74.3 are Catholics, 13.0 Episcopalians, 10.0 Presbyterians, 1.4 Methodists, 1.3 other denominations. Methodists, Jews, and "others" alone show an increase. The Jews, 200 thirty years ago, are now nearly 2,000. The Protestant and foreign element increases decade by decade slightly in proportion. Meanwhile, the amount of drink consumed and the number of public houses increase; also, the number of persons in poorhouses and in insane asylums. Consequent on the complications

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of the land laws, attorneys are said to have increased by 50 per cent. within the past ten years. And the healthiest and most energetic of the agricultural population still seek their fortunes abroad. Where will be the end?

—'Les États-Unis et la Doctrine de Monroe' (Paris: Librairie Nouvelle de Droit et de Jurisprudence; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer) is a valuable review of the Monroe Doctrine by Hector Pétin, who brings to bear on it the full light of legal and historical research. He traces it through its various phases of development, from its appearance in the message of 1823, as the defensive declaration of a rising democracy, to its final affirmation at The Hague, where it appears as the handmaid of a very undemocratic imperialism. The author thinks, as a good many have thought before him, that logically our Executive at The Hague had to choose between Monroeism and Imperialist expansion in the East; but as a matter of fact he "chose both." In other words, the Monroe Doctrine gives us at home the hegemony of America, prescribes the exclusion of Europe, is prophetic of the absorption of Canada, and enables us to make any interoceanic canal a national toll-gate; while in the rest of the world it authorizes us to wrest colonies from European Powers, and, making of them American dependencies, extend our system into the heart of the antipodes. The American doctrine, as interpreted by our Canton Napoleon, makes absolute nonsense of the original Monroe Doctrine. It is neither international law nor common sense, but a vague declaration that we shall do what we please anywhere. That such an assertion of our position tends to involve us in perpetual aggression and to array Europe against us, any one can see. It consequently becomes more and more idle every day to attempt to discuss our foreign policy in terms of international law or traditional policy. "Might makes right" is the sum and substance of it. To any American who wishes to know how our playing fast and loose with the Doctrine looks to enlightened and disinterested minds, we commend this book.

THE FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT.

A Treatise on the Rights and Privileges Guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States. By Henry Brannon (Judge of the Supreme Court of West Virginia). Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson & Co. 1901. Pp. 562.

Mr. Dooley has recently said of the Constitution of the United States: "It wuddint last a minyit in thim tropical climes. 'Twud get a pain in the fourteenth amindmint an' die before the doctors cud get ar-round to cut it out." The shrewd humorist has here put his finger on the page of the Constitution which for thirty years has been more often invoked in defence of individual rights than all the other provisions of the Constitution put together since the formation of the Federal Government. "The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States," says Mr. Justice Brannon, is "the most important of all the additions made to that great instrument. That amendment speaks principles of free government of overruling import." "Who," he asks, "will deny the right of the principles of the Fourteenth Amendment? Who will contest the inestimable value of the sacred rights which it guarantees? Who will dare to contest the principles of Magna Carta?"

No one will dare to! Nevertheless, while the Fourteenth Amendment was devised, as the Supreme Court has intimated, for the security and protection of an inferior race, the effort of our politicians in the future will be to withhold its benefits from what they deem inferior races. Men of all races will dwell in "thim tropical climes," under the American flag, and they may be held to be within some of the limitations of the Constitution or beyond some of the limitations of the Constitution; but, no matter what may be held by the courts, a new "irrepressible conflict" awaits the American people, and an inevitable alternative will constantly confront our political managers, evade it as they may; and that alternative is this—shall those men in our insular possessions live under their own flag or under the Fourteenth Amendment?

The book before us is an overwhelming testimonial to the importance of the Fourteenth Amendment—to the unprecedentedly active part which it has played, is playing, and will continue to play in our Constitutional drama. Its importance has been foreseen and seen by the author for thirty years, and nothing concerning it seems to have escaped his watchful, critical eye. It is worthy of notice that he is an unqualified believer in the Amendment, that he is a Southerner, and a member of a State judiciary; and it is greatly to his honor that this broad-minded exposition comes from the very spot where, in the ordinary weakness and prejudice of human nature, we might expect to find narrowness of construction and querulous censure and opposition. We can illustrate the sagacity, caution, good sense, and judicial-mindedness of the work by quoting what the author says on a subject with which our readers, whether lawyers or laymen, have, unhappily, only too much reason to be familiar. In one of the early chapters of the book, written before the Porto Rico and Philippine cases had reached the Supreme Court, he looked forward and made the analysis of the questions involved:

"Is Porto Rico, since the Paris treaty, a foreign country so as to justify such charge [the duties of the Dingley tariff]? The court (103 Fed. R. 72) held that the island was by the treaty 'acquired,' but not 'incorporated,' into the nation, and hence for this purpose was still a 'foreign' country. The reasoning does not seem conclusive. Its basis is largely that of Fleming vs. Page (9 How. 603), holding that goods from a Mexican port held by our forces in war, but restored to Mexico by the treaty of peace, was, for the time, land of the United States by conquest, a part of its territory, and yet not so far as to exempt from tariff; and if this be so, why not the same as to Porto Rico? I answer that one was transient occupation during war, provisional at most; the other, possession, with legal title under law of war and peace, for ever. There is a difference. Congress seems to have taken a different view from Judge Townsend's view, as it passed a temporary tariff act for Porto Rico. My view is that it is not a 'foreign' country under antecedent tariff law, and that to subject it to tariff there must be an express act. Whether Congress can constitutionally pass such act under its power to govern territories, or, Porto Rico being a part of the nation, it is prohibited by the provision that 'all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States,' is a question not yet decided. It seems to me of doubtful constitutionality; but I venture no final opinion."

And as to the Filipinos Justice Brannon says:

"It is questionable whether a Filipino can be naturalized . . . No doubt, under the principle [established by the Amendment that "all persons born" in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens] children of Filipinos born since the acquisition of the islands by the United States would be citizens. But, though the Filipinos are not within the naturalization laws, still, they are American freemen, entitled as 'persons,' under the Fifth and Sixth Amendments, and under the Civil Rights Act, and the free spirit of our Government, to the personal rights accorded by the benign system of government of the United States. They are subject to our jurisdiction and laws, *and from that very fact* they are freemen in a free republican government, not subjects of an empire or monarchy. The treaty of peace with Spain did not give the inhabitants of these islands citizenship, but committed the government of them to Congress. Congress must govern them according to principles of American free government. As the treaty conveys the islands to us, we must regard our right as based on cession, not conquest—a consideration repelling all thought of power of imposing arbitrary government on these people."

We suspect that many of our readers will wish that Mr. Justice Brannon had been sitting last May on a bench where he could have "ventured a final opinion" in regard to the "temporary tariff" for Porto Rico, and have done something towards clarifying that question of "doubtful constitutionality."

But these extracts give an inadequate idea of the hard and patient work which the author has lavished upon this book. It is, indeed, a compendium of cases decided, of points determined, of questions yet to arise and be disposed of. The index covers forty pages, the table of cases cited twenty-nine more. We estimate roughly that these twenty-nine pages contain more than 1,200 cases. Some of them relate to general principles of law, some to other provisions of the Constitution; but it is evident that the last thirty years have brought forth a fearful array of decisions bearing upon or growing out of the Fourteenth Amendment. "The Fourteenth Amendment," says our author, "is the child of our great civil war"; it was designed to guarantee the legal rights of 4,000,000 emancipated slaves, whose legal rights, it was feared, would be denied to them by the States; "but its language is broad, applying to all citizens and persons, 'without regard to race, color, or nationality.'"

And yet this comprehensive work and these unnumbered decisions do not extend to the whole of the Fourteenth Amendment, but only to two brief sections (the first and fifth), containing together less than 100 words. Moreover, the Fourteenth Amendment "creates and originates nothing new." "It creates no new privileges or immunities of citizens, no new right of life, liberty, or property, no new process of law. It only guarantees rights preëxisting, or those which law, national or State, may after its date confer"; and it confers upon Congress power to enforce "the provisions of this article," which is new.

Here at the first glance appears the phenomenal fact that a few personal safeguards, which for nearly a hundred years had been reposing in the Constitution, instantly produced, when rewritten in the Amendment, a cloud-burst of litigation, where, before, the judicial sky had been almost without a

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cloud. In 1778 the corrupting methods of George III. and the acts of his corrupted Parliament, and such provincial governments as that of Rhode Island, had demoralized Americans so far as to make them suspect and distrust all governments, and especially that new and unknown government without authority, without organization, without the majesty of being—the less respected because it was the work of their own hands. Madison, therefore, promised, and proposed, and carried through the Ten Amendments which have been called our Bill of Rights. It has taken less than a century to demonstrate that it was the other repository of sovereignty in our dual system, the State governments, which needed Constitutional restrictions. As long ago as Davidson vs. New Orleans (97 U. S. R.), Mr. Justice Miller noted the fact that the Fifth Amendment, restraining Federal authority, though then nearly a century old, had hardly ever been invoked, while even then the Fourteenth had laden the docket of the Supreme Court with cases seeking the overthrow of State legislation. "The Ten Amendments," says a recent writer in the *Evening Post*, "form a noble decalogue of great principles to be kept before the eyes of all American citizens; but, nevertheless, the judicial records of the century show that the Government which the framers of the Constitution established would have moved on just as it has done if these Ten Amendments had never been proposed."

With the Fourteenth there came three new elements to disturb the serenity of the judicial sky. First, it did what the Convention in 1778 had refrained from doing—it imposed the Bill of Rights, or a little of it, on the State Governments, and did not trust them, as theretofore, to the restrictions of State Constitutions. Second, it did what the Convention had refused to do, it gave power to the Federal Government to enforce these restrictions upon the States by Federal legislation. Third, it came coincident with a new order of things, especially in the new and in the "reconstructed" States, where "carpet-bag" power, and race prejudice, and corporate corruption, and "ring government," and socialism were to evolve wild experiments of Constitutional government, and to influence and pervert State legislation as never before.

The diversity of subjects of this new litigation, *i. e.*, of these multitudinous cases which have been brought into the courts to have Constitutional rights concerning them determined, is almost unbelievable: Dogs, Rags, Drunkards, Prostitutes, Wild Animals, Domestic Animals, Dead Animals, Caucasians, Africans, Mongolians, Indians, Hawaiians, Citizens, Aliens, Naturalized Citizens, Children of Aliens, Women, Wives, Persons, States, Corporations, Convicts, Arid Lands, Ardent Spirits, Barbers, the Human Body, Carcasses, Cigarettes, Dentistry, Divorce, Drumming, Vagrants, Vaccination, Osteopathy, Oleomargarine, Mobs, Logs, Speeches, Natural Gas, the American Flag, etc., etc. It may be noted that one of the most interesting opinions of the Supreme Court is upon the subject-matter of Dogs (166 U. S. R., 698); that a State may reënact provisions of early English statutes imposing a criminal penalty on him who entices away another man's servant; that prohibiting orators from making speeches in parks and pleasure-grounds does not deprive them of "liberty"; and that the national flag is a legitimate instrumentality for making money and may be used constitutionally for advertising purposes.

Doubtless in a book of this character there are errors and omissions; but the only omission we have noticed is the trivial one that, when setting forth the restrictive provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment, the author did not give the similar restrictions on Federal power. The searching index, we should add, makes the book almost as ready of reference as an encyclopædia.

KNIGHT'S MODERN SEAMANSHIP.

Modern Seamanship. By Lieutenant-Commander Austin M. Knight, United States Navy. D. Van Nostrand Company. 1901.

There is no such dyed-in-the-wool conservative as the sailor. The indignation with which he repels the faintest suggestion of improvement in things nautical is amusing in its vehemence, clothed, as it usually is, in the choicest flowers of objurgation. Innovation is of the Evil One, to be avoided or suppressed. The seaman's true criterion is the way of the fathers. Nothing new is good; on the contrary, everything new is bad. The creed is delightfully simple, and it is held with monkish fervor. It is difficult, therefore, to imagine the shock which the generation of mariners now passing away must experience as they hear of a book, just printed, with the ominous title 'Modern Seamanship.' Such a violation of the traditions is little short of sacrilege.

And yet the technical literature of the profession embodies, on the whole, a steady advance in treatment and a constant widening of scope. Among the earliest books of the kind, Blunt's 'Seamanship, both in Theory and Practice' (1813) was a bit too *raisonné* to find favor with the seagoing fraternity of that day. The pendulum of marine opinion was at the other extreme of the swing, and Boatswain Brady of the navy, recognizing the fact, produced a small elementary work with a very large name. 'The Naval Apprentice's Kedge Anchor, or Young Sailor's Assistant,' written by him in 1840, when a sub-title was fashionable if not obligatory, was dedicated to "John Gallagher, Esquire, Captain United States Navy." (The good old custom of giving naval captains the social rank of esquire survived until the sixties.) The 'Kedge Anchor' held its own for many years, since Lieutenant Totten's 'Naval Text-Book' (1841), and 'Nautical Routine and Stowage' (1849), by Passed Midshipmen Murphy and Jeffers, both conceived in higher spirit (the former very dignified and scholarly), were unable to descend from the shelves and oust it from its place as the seaman's handbook. The 'Kedge Anchor' was even used as a text-book at the Naval Academy, although supplemented by manuscript notes copied, with faithful loyalty, by the young midshipman from the vade-mecum of some older officer, chosen as his exemplar.

The reign of the 'Kedge Anchor' came to an end at the Naval Academy in 1862, when Lieutenant (now Rear-Admiral) Stephen B. Luce was ordered to that institution as instructor in seamanship. His first duty was to supply a text-book, the want of which had become pressing, and Luce's well-known 'Seamanship' was the result of his labors. For forty years it has been used at the Naval Academy and universally accepted as the unimpeachable American authority on its subject in all its branches. But the demon of progress, not respecting the seaman's whim, has affected his calling to the verge of revolution. The adoption of steam propulsion as an auxiliary to sail power, in the third and fourth decade of the nineteenth century, introduced many new problems, of which contemporary works treat more or less perfunctorily, for the post of honor was still occupied by the man who could "reef, hand, and steer," who knew what a cat-harpin was, and who was profoundly versed in grommets, paunch-mats, puddings, Matthew Walker knots, and like creations of the marlinspike. The same conservatism dominated later works even when canvas had disappeared from the seas except for the freighting of bulky cargoes, and except, also, in the yachting, fishing, and coastwise fleets. Canvas was, indeed, spread, but, as now, only with a fair wind to increase the speed or to save coal. In its turn it had become auxiliary. So strong a grip, however, did it have on the naval mind that, long after twin-screws came into use (in the transatlantic service in 1881 and much earlier in European navies), heavy spars and broad sails were yet retained. Late in the eighties our navy was still masting its twin-screw cruisers *Chicago* and *Newark*, while the English were doing the same with such armored vessels as the *Impérieuse* and *Warspite*. To-day, however, the only masted man-of-war, except the training ship, is the single-screw gunboat designed for duty on remote stations where fuel is costly. The merchant service is practically given over to that marvel of efficiency and economy, the tramp steamer.

Since 1890, the British ship captain has had Todd and Whall's 'Practical Seamanship for Use in the Merchant Service,' a fairly good work, with a special aim. Notwithstanding this publication, the want of a treatise available for both the navy and the mercantile marine had not been adequately supplied. Something was needed which should chiefly regard the new state of affairs, giving most attention to the full-powered steamer while not neglecting the sailing vessel, and which should minister to the needs of the naval officers of to-day and to-morrow as Luce had ministered to the needs of him of yesterday. Lieutenant-Commander Knight, when ordered as head of the Department of Seamanship at the Naval Academy in 1898, found himself situated just as Luce was in 1862, for again the art had outstripped the text-book. 'Modern Seamanship' is his response to the demands of the new conditions. In an able and satisfactory way it supplements "the midshipman's Bible," as Luce's work is affectionately termed, doing for the full-powered steamer what Luce had previously done for the full-rigged ship and the auxiliary steamer.

A technical treatise on a widely ramified subject must deal with broad outlines unless the author commands unlimited space. Failing that, it must be a compromise between an encyclopædia and a manual. The value of such a treatise depends upon the skill with which the compromise is effected, and 'Modern Seamanship' stands this test very well. It is quite remarkable in explaining the principles upon which its suggestions are based. The appeal is less to precedent than to reason—a radical departure in works on seamanship. The reader who is equipped

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with but a slight knowledge of vessels finds the bewildering perplexity of a modern ship's anatomy made agreeably clear in a series of excellent plates, either sectional or in perspective, as the case demands. He then plunges into ropes and knots, a topic not without its interest even to the landsman. We recall the despair of a teamster, hauling logs in Tennessee, over his inability to make the rope fast to the drag-chain; his contempt when a sailor cast a Blackwall hitch (plate 11, fig. 9) into the rope and threw it over the hook; and the teamster's astonishment when he saw that "the derned thing held." "You are the beatingest cuss on ropes I ever see," was his tribute of praise. A short chapter on masts and masting supplies the present want on a topic which formerly required so elaborate a volume as 'Fincham on Masting.' That on sails would have commanded wider reading had a few paragraphs been devoted to the recent modes of cutting and spreading yachts' sails. The introduction of the batten and the fuller belly are at least as worthy of a place as the mechanical details of sounding machines and steam capstans. Of more than mere naval value are the instructions for handling weights. Many a factory superintendent would find profit in studying them.

It has been said that a sailor is the only marine animal that cannot swim; and the statement is painfully close to the truth. It may be added that he cannot sail a boat. For these two reasons Knight's sections telling of boats and their handling are greatly to be commended. Few naval officers, for example, ever get such an experience as fell to the lot of the naval cadets who landed Shafter's army through the surf on the south coast of Cuba in 1898. The steering of steamers and their management, especially about a dock and at sea in heavy weather, are discussed in a logical manner. This part of the book, evidencing as it does originality and painstaking care to embody the best nautical experience, drawn both from the navy and the merchant service, should appeal strongly to yachtsmen who aspire to the control of their own craft.

'Modern Seamanship' is very readable in places. Its injunctions for rescuing the crew of a wreck, for example, are enlivened by short accounts of appropriate and thrilling episodes. Broadly speaking, any one can handle a steamer when the sea is smooth, the sky clear, and there is nothing in sight. It is in times of storm, emergency, disaster that knowledge and experience are of supreme importance. For the latter, familiarity with what has been done before by others under similar circumstances is the only substitute. In this respect, 'Modern Seamanship' is most valuable, the best thought and practice of competent seamen having been culled and woven into suggestions which should be studied by all who go down to the sea in ships. This feature of the book inspires a confidence which an *ex-cathedra* tone would repel.

The manœuvres of the sailing ship receive due attention, but rather affectionately, as by one who regrets the passing away of the old order of things, than as the propagandist of a new faith. The reviewer would be false to his trust did he fail to point out that "gammoning," once an art in itself, is unmentioned, and that the faithful student of the 'Bab Ballads' will seek in vain through the pages of 'Modern Seamanship' for the key to Sir Blennerhasset Portico's perplexity over the "Mystic Selvagee." We believe that "gammoning" still survives, but on shore principally, and in its grosser signification.

While the book is modern in scope, it is also modern in method, for the long, verbose descriptions which overweighted many of its predecessors are replaced by numerous illustrations which make things clear at a glance, without sacrificing any matter of importance, and gain space for the discussion of current problems. There are, naturally, a few points wherein nautical men will not all agree with Lt.-Comdr. Knight, but consideration of them would be out of place here. The book is a notable, valuable, and timely contribution to naval technics, and it should find a welcome, as a trustworthy work of reference, in all large libraries, public or private, besides serving as an approved manual of the sailor's art on board of yachts, merchant vessels, and men-of-war.

THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA BIBLICA.

Encyclopædia Biblica: A Dictionary of the Bible edited by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne and J. S. Sutherland Black. Vol. II. E.—K. The Macmillan Co. 1901. Pp. 772.

Volume by volume, this great work is of a growing significance. In spite of all that can be said against its attitude, it stands absolutely alone in width of learning, in exactness of scholarship, in acuteness of insight and fertility in conjecture and hypothesis, and in precision of statement. Very seldom do the writers permit themselves an edifying touch; we have not noticed in this volume anything resembling the *bêtises* of that kind which appeared in the first. Dr. Cheyne's remark in col. 2577, on the spiritual excellence of the Jordan, seems to stand very nearly alone. The Arabic scholarship, too—the only side of scholarship which we criticised in the former volume—seems in this to be untouchable. It must be confessed, however, that none of the learned contributors has ventured any further disport to speak of in these perilous fields.

What has been said already of the general plan and scope of the first volume applies, and perhaps still more strongly, to this. Over it all there broods the presence and influence of the editor. Out of 127 articles of greater importance, Dr. Cheyne has entirely written or weightily collaborated in no less than thirty-five. In the case of the smaller articles, his contributions must mount still higher. By far the greater proportion of those which bear any signature at all have his initials. Finally, to reckon up the notes and comments in square brackets, signed and unsigned, which he has seen fit to add to the work of his contributors would be a hopeless task. Only articles which are the barest statement of fact and carry no responsibility of suggestion or interpretation have been left unsigned. The number of formally collaborated articles is comparatively large, and the combination has sometimes produced the happiest results. "Exodus," by Cheyne, S. A. Cook, and W. M. Müller, may be adduced as an example. But, in other cases, the results are by no means so fortunate. That is especially so in the articles taken over from the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Where the writer still lives to revise his own work—*e. g.*, Wellhausen, on "Hexateuch"—it has been successfully brought up to date. But it would have been much better if the others, including, in spite of all *pietas*, those even by Robertson Smith, had been freely recast or entirely rewritten. The patchwork renovation which they have undergone is neither satisfactory in itself nor easy to read. It is a beautiful illustration of the documentary hypothesis; but that is all that can be said for it. In some cases, too, it is highly inadequate. The article, "Hebrew Language," should have been at least twice as long to meet its own importance and the scale of the rest of the book. Another of the few examples of inadequacy of treatment is the article "Jesus," by the late A. B. Bruce. It is short (only twenty columns) and vapid to a degree. We are actually left in doubt at the end as to whether or not the writer accepted the historicity of the Resurrection. This is one of the cases in which the 'Hastings Dictionary' has an easy superiority; Sanday's article on the same subject is excellent. To Dr. Bruce's article it could also be objected that it has no place in the scheme of the book. Biblical theology was ruled expressly out in the preface to the first volume, and this sketch consists really of Biblical theology, though of the wateriest. The same criticism applies still more to the article on "Faith"; that it says nothing about the Faith does not save it from being theological.

But it must not be thought that weakness and indefiniteness characterize the New Testament articles generally. It is rather the case that they take up an extreme "critical" position, and are worked out with great detail and thoroughness. Dr. Cheyne has evidently determined to apply vigorously the methods of Old Testament criticism to the New, and to introduce to English readers the most advanced results of German scholars. In this he has not been contented with letting his New Testament authorities go their own way, but has mingled in the fight himself, and has written several articles which we should hardly have looked for from a Hebraist, or, on another side, from a high dignitary in the Church of England. For, in truth, if this dictionary is under the strict over-lordship of its editor, that over-lordship is revealing in him a wealth of miscellaneous and many-sided learning that must fill us with astonishment. Dr. Cheyne seems to have claimed all theological knowledge for his portion, and to be making good his claim. It is also revealing a freedom from prejudice—to put it mildly—which will strike many people with consternation.

In all this, it need not be said, is an element of danger. This book, however excellent it is, must be regarded as representing—and that especially in the New Testament—a single school. Whoever consults it in order to gain some idea of the perfectly assured results on any subject, must do so cautiously. A good basis and reason, without doubt, can be given for everything here, but, equally without doubt, there is here an enormous mass of contentious matter. And when, within the authority of a single school, we have the authority of a single man dominating it all, there is still more need to repeat, "Caveat lector!" Dr. Cheyne turns from his light-hearted emending of Hebrew texts and criticism of Hebrew sources to no less light-hearted Greek efforts. These things must come and go and come and go again, but it is well to remember the fate of Bentley, how happily he emended corrupt texts, and how

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brilliantly he failed when he applied the same methods and spirit to texts relatively sound. And even in dealing with most corrupt Hebrew texts, it is well also to remember that a conjectural emendation which *may* have been the original reading, can by no means be treated as the certainly original reading. Such guesses as those of Dr. Cheyne on Jael (col. 2313) and Qoheleth (col. 2686) may be right, but cannot be proved right, and have large odds against them.

It remains to note some of the articles of most outstanding importance. High among these must come that on the Gospels by E. A. Abbot and P. W. Schmiedel. It is by far the longest, running to 134 columns, and could not easily be overpraised as an elaborate development of a certain position. Of course that position is most extreme, even from the standpoint of an anti-supernaturalist. The historical skepticism and subtlety of evasion displayed in it would be laughed out of court if applied to any documents or figures of "profane" history. Yet we must be grateful for it; after it nothing can come but a reaction. Equally weighty, if not so long, is that on John, son of Zebedee, also by Schmiedel (59 columns). John the Baptist is taken by Cheyne. "Israel" (72 columns) is by Guthe, and "Eschatology" (55 columns), already noticed in its larger book form, by R. H. Charles. Cheyne has treated Isaiah, Job—an illuminative article, but disappointingly indefinite in certain particulars—Esau, Isaac, Jacob, Jephthah, Jonah, and very many other rubrics. All his articles are of such a character as to make us look with impatience for his promised 'Critica Biblica.' It will evidently contain the lengthier treatment and justification of much that now seems scrappy and baldly daring. One of the best articles in the book is that on Egypt by W. M. Müller (45 columns), which stands easily first among recent English treatises on the subject. By the same author are several other Egyptological articles. Nöldeke has treated Edom, Esther, Hagar, Ishmael, etc., most fully and learnedly: A. B. Davidson, Ecclesiastes; M. R. James, Esdras; Kautzsch, Kings; G. F. Moore, many articles, including Genesis, Exodus, Historical Literature, etc.; N. Schmidt, Jeremiah; Toy, Ecclesiasticus and Ezekiel. Such, in a dry catalogue, is part of the contents of a deeply interesting book.

We have here not only a thesaurus of Biblical information—perhaps rather one-sided in its presentation—but also a clear indication of a theological drift. This drift of the whole is unmistakable, and it helps us far into the light as to the ultimate outcome of the extreme critical school. How such scholars as Professors Davidson, Driver, and G. A. Smith feel themselves in their present company must remain dubious; a certain hackneyed quotation from Molière about a *galère* rises to the mind. But the path before Dr. Cheyne and his confrères is clear. The Protestant doctrine of Scripture is for them utterly shattered; no fine fence over the word "inspiration" can help them. For a positive religious attitude they have no basis left, except authority, expressed either in the tradition of a church or in the mystical perceptions of the individual. They have moved far beyond the distinction between the historicity of the Old and of the New Testaments, to which the English critical school so long clung, and which was expressed so ably by Driver in the preface to his 'Literature of the Old Testament.' The Gospels are going the way of the Pentateuch; the Epistles, the way of the Prophets; and Driver's plea of difference between the "Song of Hannah" and the "Magnificat" has been whistled down the wind. The figure of Jesus fades into a misty uncertainty like that of Apollonius of Tyana, and we shall soon be back at a point where Blount's seventeenth-century comparison between the Gospels and Philostratus's life of the same Apollonius will again have weight. Under these conditions the Church of Rome will undoubtedly draw many into its shelter, and others will soothe themselves with vague phrases and mystical aspirations. For those who hold, however broadly, to an historical revelation, it is now time to face a crisis.

There are several maps, some of which are good and clear. Those of Palestine itself are small in scale and inadequate in details; they cannot compete in any respect with the maps of G. A. Smith's 'Historical Geography,' which seem to have been their model.

The Story of My Life. By Augustus J. C. Hare. Vols. III. and IV. London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

Mr. Hare informs us in his preface that, with the exception of the last two chapters, these two volumes were printed at the same time with the first two in 1896. They were not published then, presumably, because of a fear that others might not share his preference for a very long book if it be at the same time a pleasant one. The change from the temper of those first volumes to that of these is certainly remarkable. Mr. Hare takes back nothing, and here and there he devotes a page to the repulsive traits of his ancestors and relatives, but time and death have softened the outlines of his denunciation of the Hares and Maurices, who did most to make his early life a torture and a shame; and as the story leaves behind the *dramatis personæ* of the earlier years, and new actors take new parts upon the crowded stage, the prevailing note is that of generous appreciation. Mr. Hare is himself the most persistent character, and he proves much more attractive as he advances from middle life to the borders of old age. He permits himself "the delights of admiration" without stint. Of personal vanity there is less than we might naturally expect in one having entrance to so many noble houses and acquaintance with so many people of importance. Best of all is his relation to his servants, and especially to Mary Lea Gidman, who nursed his infancy and remained with him until her death when she was full of years.

Mr. Hare informs the public that it is under no obligation to read his book at all, if it is thought too long; or it may be read skippingly. But the matter for the most part is so entertaining that only the most serious-minded will care to omit many pages. It can hardly be complained that the writer makes too much of his own affairs, so intent is he on those of other people. For future students of the social life of England in Victoria's reign, Mr. Hare has written an invaluable memoir. Places are described with the skill we should expect from the practised hand which wrote 'Walks in Rome' and many similar books. He seems to be always on the go, passing from one town or country house to another in an endless round of visits and festivities. He does well to remind us that this nomadic life is not exhaustive of his time; that it was periodic, and, between its recurrent seasons, there were others of quiet study at his beloved Holmhurst, and yet others of working travel, when he was engaged in preparing his literary guide-books or personally conducting the royal Prince of Sweden or some other more or less docile pupil on a course of migratory instruction.

It was the ethereal gust and not the carnal feast which attracted him to "rich men furnished with ability, living peaceably in their habitations." He counted that day lost on which he added nothing to his stock of amusing stories, or his store of personal talk. His stories, which are numberless, are good, bad, and indifferent. Many of them are of that kind which his American friends called "chestnuts." Two, at least, of the best have been associated in this country with Phillips Brooks, and the scales are only partially redressed by the attribution to Phillips Brooks of what is—so we have heard—a happy phrase of Sydney Smith. The setting of these familiar stories, as Mr. Hare repeats them, is so particular that we should be obliged to think it the genuine original setting were not our American variants equally particular. In regard to things American, there is a general contempt, qualified by particular admirations, with that degree of inaccuracy which makes us wonder if our American blunders about English matters are more frequent or absurd. Dr. Cyrus Bartol figures as "Silas" in a story which is not flattering to Mrs. Fanny Kemble. We have not only Mr. Hare's own stories of his contemporaries, which seem inclusive of all recent reputations, but reminiscences of older people to the second and third generation, which are often quite as good. In this secondary fashion the Grotes are prominent, while with Carlyle the touch is both immediate and reminiscent. Mr. Hare was often meeting Lord Houghton at one place and another, and he represents him as the embodiment of good-natured vanity. "Even I," he said of a good thing, "never said anything better than that." His bon-mots were only less numerous than Sydney Smith's. To Gladstone, saying that his own was a dog's life, Houghton answered, "Yes, a St. Bernard's; saving many lives your business." Sydney Smith's reply to Landseer, who wished him to sit for his portrait, "Is thy servant a dog that he should do this thing?" is represented as an afterthought which the wily dean was glad to substitute for his actual and commonplace reply. Did Smith say that Whewell's "foible" was omniscience, or his "passion," as here represented? It is amusing to read of George Ticknor, that typical Boston aristocrat, as "of the most lowly origin." Lord Beaconsfield was not attractive to Mr. Hare, who takes pleasure in relating that Lady Beaconsfield was originally a factory girl. Her first husband found her with bare feet, married her, and, dying, left her rich. When asked why she married Disraeli, she answered: "My dear, he made love to me while my first husband was alive, and, therefore, I knew that he really loved me." No one is touched more lovingly than Hugh Pearson, Dean Stanley's dearest friend. He would have had Mr. Hare write Stanley's biography, but one of Stanley's executors interfered. One of Pearson's contributions to Mr. Hare's

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collection of felicities was the following quatrain of Mr. Justice Bruce:

"The ladies praise our curate's eyes;
I cannot see their light divine:
He always shuts them when he prays,
And, when he preaches, closes mine."

But as yet we have not mentioned one note of Mr. Hare's story which recurs more frequently than any other—so frequently that the sub-title of his book might very properly have been, "A Collection of Ghost and Murder Stories, with Many Remarkable Coincidences and Premonitions." There are dozens and scores of these things in Mr. Hare's volumes. His predilection for them was remarkable, and wherever he went they gravitated to him like steel filings to a powerful magnet. The Society for Psychical Research would find in them much food for reflection. The trouble is that most of these stories could not be verified at this remove from the actual occurrences. What they prove is the abundance of their kind and of the popular belief in them. Some of them are grim and ghastly enough to bring back the ghost of Poe; some of them curious enough to persuade Hawthorne to revisit the pale glimpses of the moon. The judicious reader will not read them just before going to bed.

The Diplomatic History of the Southern Confederacy. [The Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History, 1900.] By James Morton Callahan, Ph.D. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. 1901. Pp. 304.

It has long been known to scholars interested in the history of the civil war that the almost complete diplomatic archives of the Confederacy are in the Treasury Department at Washington, and they have been extensively used by biographers of Lincoln and of Seward and by Mr. Bigelow in his 'France and the Confederate Navy.' However, there was still room, need even, for a systematic narrative showing how the Confederate hopes of early recognition and independence came to nothing. Dr. Callahan has undertaken to supply this. He has read the Confederate, the United States, and the British diplomatic correspondence perhaps as closely as any predecessor; he has gone through a large number of histories, biographies, and diaries about the Confederates; he has made excellent use of several files of Southern newspapers; and from all these sources he has taken good notes. In gathering his materials he has been even zealously industrious. Where he is disappointing is in construction. He marshals on his printed page apparently nearly all the notes he made, relevant or irrelevant to Confederate aims; hundreds of facts, rumors, suspicions, and guesses are distributed among eleven chapters, and are given hasty and imperfect arrangement.

The first two chapters, one-fifth of the book, describe the Confederate diplomatic archives, tell how they came to be acquired by the United States, and give a fragmentary sketch of "The Confederate Government, Politics, and Finances." There is no intention to depreciate the Confederacy and its most serious leaders, but Dr. Callahan has been so much impressed by the criticisms, fears, and discontent of weak-kneed Confederates that he has forgotten to explain to his readers what it was in Davis and Lee and Benjamin and Slidell and nineteen-twentieths of the people of the Cotton States that gave the Confederacy vigorous life and extensive European sympathy. At least the chapter on "The Confederate Foreign Policy" ought to open with sentences designed to excite the reader's curiosity, and make him feel that the diplomatic history of the Confederacy is worth serious consideration. The first paragraph, however, is as follows:

"James L. Orr, Chairman of the Confederate House Committee on Foreign Relations, once said that the Confederacy never had a foreign policy, and never attempted any high diplomacy. Whatever may be thought of this statement, the failure of the Confederacy was certainly not due to any deficiency in the number of its agents abroad. Jefferson Davis commissioned many diplomatic, consular, and secret agents to watch every opportunity to negotiate treaties or to press Confederate interests."

Here, as in other places, the author displays a lack of literary tact; and there are very few signs that he has digested his material or done much careful thinking about it or his own composition. It is notorious that all but a few of the Confederate leaders were confident that, in the event of war with the North and a consequent blockade of Southern ports, the need of cotton for the manufactories of England and France would compel one or both of them at least to break the blockade. This would probably lead to war between the United States and the intervening Power or Powers, and such a war would surely and speedily give the Confederacy independence. Robert Barnwell Rhett had an equally complete and much more energetic plan of shaping the foreign relations of the Confederacy. He proposed, says Dr. Callahan (p. 84), on the authority of Yancey's biographer:

"(1.) A treaty of commercial alliance involving reciprocal obligations, offensive and defensive, for twenty years or more, during which the Confederacy would impose no import duty higher than 20 per cent. ad valorem, no tonnage except for maintaining harbors and rivers, and would permit European parties to the treaty to enjoy the privileges of the coasting trade free, subject only to the police regulations of the State. (2.) A discriminating duty of 10 per cent. on all goods of all nations refusing to accept the treaty. (3.) The commissioners to have power (as Franklin in 1778) to form alliances with European Powers and guarantee their North American possessions."

Of course, if there was a good basis for the conviction that "King Cotton" would be all-powerful, it was better to be content with the natural alliance with him. But would a wise and sober-minded statesman have believed implicitly in him? Were there not developments that were vital and yet beyond the range of human foresight? Would it have been safer to start with Rhett's programme? Would that have attracted France or Great Britain? or would it have been a confession that the Confederates recognized that their own strength was wholly inadequate for their task? These are questions of the first importance in the diplomatic history of the Confederacy, and any author possessing originality and grasp of his subject could hardly have failed to furnish instructive speculations in regard to them.

"Let the facts tell their own story" is a saying accepted by many persons. Yes, but what are "facts"? What is evidence? What is a probability, even? The most that can be done here is to give a few examples of our author's poor judgment as to these questions. "Benjamin," he calmly states (p. 79), "in a letter [written in 1860] to the English Consul in New York, said that the conditions might arise which would even induce the Southern States to resume their former allegiance to England." The sole authority for this sentence is a letter printed in Barnes's 'Life of Thurlow Weed.' This letter is absurd on its face, and is made more so by Mr. Barnes's explanation that it came from the British Consul to the British Minister, and subsequently ceased to be a secret. Since it was printed by Mr. Barnes, seventeen years ago, scores of scholars have read it and would have referred to it if they had regarded it as genuine. As far as we know, Dr. Callahan is the first to be so bold as to give full credence to an apparently spurious document, in which Mr. Barnes himself had so little faith that he felt called upon to say, "This letter is published on what is believed to be trustworthy authority." This meant nothing less than that it was not copied from a manuscript in Benjamin's handwriting, and therefore may have been somebody's hoax or guess, like many other "bits of secret history" of all times of excitement. In a dozen other places the merest suspicions and rumors, which meant next to nothing, are quoted as if they were significant historical evidence. This peculiarity reaches a climax in the chapter entitled "The Last Effort—Kenner's Mission." Upon the authority of the recollections of two or three very old men, trying to recall what they were told had occurred a third of a century before, we are furnished with a minute account of Duncan F. Kenner's being given full power to negotiate a gigantic deal in cotton and make a treaty with either Great Britain or France, or both, promising emancipation in exchange for recognition or substantial assistance. His powers, we are told, were so great, although orally bestowed, that he could even displace or remove Slidell or Mason. That the Confederacy was about to change its diplomatic policy to correspond with the enlistment (and practical emancipation) of slaves as soldiers is very probable. That Kenner carried oral and written instructions to Mason and Slidell is all but certain, for one of Mason's dispatches of the time indicates as much. But it is like throwing away compass and rudder to accept as historical evidence what one man thought he recollected, long afterward, of what another man had told him had happened several years before.

The author states that shortly after the Kenner chapter was first printed—very properly in a newspaper—an editorial writer in the Washington *Post* affirmed that Prince Polignac, a Frenchman in the Confederate military service, was sent, early in 1865, to offer to Napoleon III., in exchange for the use of an army to gain Confederate independence, all the territory of the Louisiana Purchase within the borders of the Confederacy. This was important secret history, and was well authenticated; for one Major Moncure, who accompanied Polignac on the mission, told the editorial writer after his return. But Polignac himself, although still alive and vigorous, was so poor a judge of well-authenticated history as to cable a prompt and effective denial. Had he chanced not to hear the story—as might easily have been the case, for he divides his year between Paris, winter resorts, and châteaux in different European countries—

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it would have had as good an historical foundation as many of the statements in the Kenner incident.

Problèmes Politiques du Temps Présent. Par Émile Faguet, de l'Académie Française. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901.

It would seem as if French critics of to-day, not finding enough to work upon in the literary realm, all felt the need of widening their range of activity. In recent years we have seen them, one after another, deserting literary criticism for politics, invading the forum, and addressing the crowd on all the issues of the day. To be sure, this interest in public affairs on the part of littérateurs is not altogether new. Villemain was a Minister of Public Instruction. St.-Marc Girardin was a Deputy. Sainte-Beuve and Edmond Scherer belonged to the Senate. But those great critics, while deeply interested in their civic duties, did not, like their successors of to-day, who have become rabid partisans, regard politics as coming within the control of their critical power. M. Brunetière was the first to start the movement when, ten years ago, he assumed the part of a lay apologist of religion as opposed to science, and a defender of Roman Catholicism as opposed to other forms of Christianity. Gradually he worked himself up to the point of making others and himself believe that he believes what he does not believe, and he is now a favorite lecturer with all theological seminaries, where he expatiates, with his unrivalled rhetorical gift, on the necessity of supporting both the Church and the army, *le sabre et le goupillon.* M. Jules Lemaître, the ingenious, skeptical, and witty critic of contemporary writers, has, ever since the Dreyfus affair, devoted all that is left of his exquisite talent to the cause of a cheap nationalism and to scathing denunciations of the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry. M. Émile Faguet is too well-balanced and lucid a mind to throw himself into militant party politics. "As everybody knows, I belong to no party," is a statement with which he begins one of his chapters, and which he is fond of repeating. He contents himself with being a well-informed, clever, and impartial writer on political topics. No one, moreover, has been better fitted to deal with those problems than a man who has had such a profound and extensive knowledge of all the great political and economical writers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

This new book, if anything, is timely. It goes deeply into each and every one of the questions which confront, at this very hour, the people of France. Of the five chapters which compose the volume there is but one which is not a burning question of the day in French politics. Whether the French Revolution was socialistic in its acts or its tendencies may be of great historical interest, but it has no practical bearing on the social problem of our time. M. Faguet, nevertheless, has invested the subject with the interest he knows so well how to impart to every question he discusses. He has satisfactorily demonstrated that the Revolution was not in the least socialistic, in the collectivistic meaning of that word (which is the only plausible one), but that its measures intended for levelling fortunes, though socialistic in spirit, actually strengthened the old system by increasing the number of land-owners. Moreover, while the most representative orators of the Constituent Assembly never dreamed of suppressing a right which they wanted to extend to all, the "Declaration of the Rights of Man" considered property as "sacred and inalienable." The chapter devoted to the French Parliamentary Régime is easily the most amusing of the volume. M. Faguet recites, in his terse and witty manner, all the grievances often charged against the parliamentary system as we have seen it work in France since 1870. The waste of time, the confusion of powers, the tyranny of petty politicians, the instability of government, the weakness of the President, are the criticisms which, besides many others, M. Faguet directs against the political system of his country, and which he develops with his keenness of observation and in his vivid style. "I do not believe that any factory is more badly managed than political and administrative France," sums up his estimate of the whole institution. As to the standard of French politicians, this is what he has to say: "France is governed by a class of Frenchmen who are incapable of doing anything else"—which is more witty than true. M. Faguet does not, like M. Déroulède and a score of other Frenchmen, stop with criticising; he has framed a Constitution of his own for the benefit of his countrymen, who, alas, will not be able to avail themselves of it because he will never find legislators self-sacrificing enough to reduce their number from 581 to 200, nor willing to share their Presidential vote with the élite of professional and intellectual citizens whom he wants to join with them in order to strengthen the President's power and authority. Furthermore, it may be said, and M. Faguet is too fair to deny it, that, with all its defects, French Parliamentarism has given to the country thirty years of democratic government, countless laws which make for human enfranchisement and progress, and a colonial empire the growth of which has been the most remarkable achievement of the Third Republic.

The chapter on "Army and Democracy" is merely a clever commentary on one of M. Brunetière's pamphlets, in which our author shows, without great novelty, that patriotism must find its embodiment in a strong love for the army, which both represents and protects the country. This brings us back to the period, now three years old, when half the writers of France were fighting either for justice or for the fatherland. The instinctive feelings of M. Faguet, and, perhaps, his interest as an academical candidate, did not allow him to be on the better side of the crucial fight. On the Freedom of Public Instruction, a topic which, all through the century, has been a great issue, and which is now being revived by the Associations Bill and the bill on the Stage Scolaire presented by the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry, M. Faguet has nothing but sensible and convincing arguments. This chapter, as well as the final one, on the relations of Church and State, show our author at his best, with his remarkable aptitude for seeing every side of every question, his breadth of view, his independence and sincerity.

Those who are curious to know how the educational and religious problems which are before the French Parliament present themselves to-day, will find in M. Faguet's book not merely a clear résumé, but a brilliant discussion of both questions. M. Faguet is, above all, a Liberal. He is, moreover, a man of common sense. Thus, he was able to demonstrate victoriously, with historical arguments and examples drawn from experience, that liberty and fair play are the best policy in both educational and religious matters. The French universities will gain nothing by trying to hamper denominational instruction, and the Church, which clings so desperately to its State privileges, would gain everything by conquering its entire independence, and imitating the churches of America whose example has so deeply impressed M. Faguet. Unfortunately the trend of politics in France is not towards Liberalism. The old fight between the parties of the past and those of the future is still raging as strong as ever, and the country seems to pass merely from one clericalism to another—since Jacobinism is, in the words of a French writer, nothing but a *cléricalisme à rebours.* M. Faguet, though by temper an optimist, cannot refrain from expressing his apprehension in noting that the general movement is not towards more freedom, but more compulsion, and that the triumph of democracy and of socialism will be characterized by a reign of absolute and tyrannical "égalitarisme" which will be another name for a new era of barbarism.

Andromache: A Play in Three Acts. By Gilbert Murray. London: W. Heinemann.

In writing this play, Mr. Murray has ventured on one of the boldest experiments that can be made in literature. His contention is that "a simple historical play, with as little convention as possible, placed in the Greek Heroic Age, and dealing with one of the ordinary heroic stories, ought to be an interesting experiment." Interesting it certainly is—a most interesting failure. It is a curious hybrid production, essentially un-Greek in form and treatment, though the actors wear Greek dress and the action takes place in Phthia, the kingdom of the dead Achilles.

The points of unlikeness to a Greek play are partly connected with structure, partly with the conception of character. In the first place, Mr. Murray has used the modern division of three acts, and, recognizing that it is impossible so to resuscitate the Greek point of view in a modern audience as to succeed in making the Greek chorus interesting or even tolerable, he has cut out the chorus altogether. To write such a play as this in English verse that would satisfy the ear was possible to Shakspere; and we could imagine M. Rostand, if his genius were not so essentially romantic, achieving it in French. But Mr. Murray has realized his own limitations to the extent of confining himself to prose, and prose, moreover, that has a strong flavor of Ibsen's staccato manner, as befits a play dedicated to Mr. William Archer. The Greek convention, according to which death scenes on the stage should be avoided, is here disregarded, and both Pyrrhus and Andromache are slain in sight of the audience. We are told by those who saw the single performance of Mr. Murray's play when it was given by the Stage Society in London last spring, that, whether owing to bad acting, or to the fact that Horace was right and the thing cannot be effectively done, the effect was ludi-

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crous, so that the phrase "moon-struck butchers" evolved by a London critic sticks fatally to the play. Mr. Murray's appeal is, in any case, to an esoteric audience, and the "Andromache" is like a Greek play at any rate in assuming that the spectators know the legend and can follow the plot without explanations.

The bases of all the later literary versions of the Andromache legend are the sixth book of the Iliad and the third of the Aeneid. It was the Virgilian passage that Racine took as his text; but neither he nor Mr. Murray ventured to tell the truth according to Virgil. Racine ignored the fact that Andromache bore sons to Pyrrhus, and finally married her brother-in-law Helenus—"patrio Andromachen iterum cessisse marito." The very existence of Molossus would have alienated French sympathies from Hector's widow; so, in "Andromaque" Astyanax still lives, and Andromache still resists the advances of Pyrrhus. To every age its peculiar squeamishness. The Athenians felt only a comfortable sense of the conventional adjustment of things when, at the close of the "Andromache" of Euripides, Thetis hands over to Helenus the widow of Hector and of Pyrrhus. Mr. Murray has had the courage to introduce Molossus, but even he could not tolerate a third husband for Andromache, so she dies at the hand of Hermione, "that wild beast," as Orestes, most improbably, is made to describe her.

The whole tragedy is written in a different tone from that of antiquity, transposed to suit the century, which is no more than Euripides did in order to make his "Andromache" intelligible to the Athenians. In Racine's second preface he says, "J'ai cru me conformer à l'idée que nous avons maintenant de cette princesse." Even so Mr. Murray gives us a Christianized Andromache, who turns the other cheek and almost quotes Scripture. The subject of the play is the coming of Orestes, with the inevitable Pylades, to Phthia, about fifteen years after the fall of Troy, to see whether Hermione, the daughter of Helen, wedded to Pyrrhus, "is indeed so passing beautiful." Hermione is drawn as the jealous and vindictive woman, the barren queen of Racine and Euripides. Orestes is the conventional figure, *tristis*, pursued by the Furies whom he alone can see; his is the most convincing character in the play except that his sudden abhorrence of Hermione's character is an essentially modern touch—in fact, the *Odi et amo* tone of the last scene is far too complex for the atmosphere of the Greek stage; Orestes gives the effect of having read too many novels.

The play will, we fear, fail to please either an audience of scholars or the general public. We do not say that Mr. Murray has attempted the impossible; only that he has proved it to be impossible to Mr. Murray, and demonstrated that it is not enough for this purpose to be a most accomplished Greek professor and man of letters, unless one is also a great dramatic poet and a master of the grand style.

Greek Thinkers: A History of Ancient Philosophy. By Theodore Gomperz. Vol. I. Translated by Laurie Magnus. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

Professor Gomperz's 'Griechische Denker' has been, for several years, a recognized classic in the field of philosophical literature. The first instalment of the authorized English translation is a volume of some 600 pages, and will be welcome to all English-speaking philosophical students. Professor Gomperz's style, brilliant as far as is possible to German prose, and heavily charged with metaphor, is by no means easy to translate. His coöperation with Mr. Magnus has secured what will, no doubt, remain the standard translation of this important work. The English is excellent, and we have nowhere discovered such failures of the translator to think himself out of the German idiom as usually disfigure the translations of German books. This first volume deals with the early Greek thinkers before Socrates, and, as a refreshing change from the stereotyped histories of the Pre-Socratics, includes studies of the historians and physicians of Greece; Professor Gomperz's range being, as the title indicates, wider than that of the regular historian of philosophy. The method usually employed by such historians has been to give a life of the man, an outline of his system, and its relation to the systems of his predecessors and successors. Professor Gomperz aims at disentangling all the varied influences of climate, Oriental philosophies—above all, the influence of the Greek colonies on the intellectual life of Greece.

"Greece may be said to look east and south. Her back is turned to the north and west with their semi-barbaric conditions. . . . There was Greece in her infancy on the one side, and the immemorial civilizations on the other: who was to ply between them? The link was found . . . in those hardy adventurers of the sea, the merchant people of Phœnicia. . . . Thus it happened that the Greeks acquired the elements of culture from Babylon and Egypt without paying the forfeit of independence" (p. 5).

Following his exhaustive discussions of the systems of the pre-Socratic philosophers, Professor Gomperz turns to the physicians, whose schools furnished a "third source from which the spirit of criticism derived its nourishment"; the other two being the metaphysical and dialectical discussions practised by the Eleatic philosophers, and the semi-historical method which was applied to the myths of Hecatæus and Herodotus. The beginnings of mental and moral science he traces in the work of the Sophists, and his lengthy studies of Protagoras and of Gorgias are an invaluable contribution to the history of the mental development of the Greeks. Nearly a hundred pages of explanatory notes and an excellent provisional index complete the volume, whose printing and paper are admirable.

Mr. Magnus is unable to continue the work of translating the second volume, which deals mainly with Socrates and Plato, and will be most welcome to Platonic students. This is much to be regretted; when the three volumes of which the work consists appear in English, it will be a decided defect that they are translated by different hands.

Moths and Butterflies. By Mary C. Dickerson, B.S. (University of Chicago). With two hundred photographs from life by the author. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1901. Pp. 344, fig. 233.

"The book 'Moths and Butterflies' is entirely untechnical in its treatment of the subject. It will identify by means of photographs from life forty common forms, in caterpillar, chrysalis or cocoon, and adult stages. It makes clear the external structure adapting the creature to its life; it describes and illustrates the changes in form from caterpillar to chrysalis, from chrysalis to butterfly. It is adapted to give quick insight into the secrets of the group."

The above is the author's own statement concerning her work, and in a measure it is justified. The last sentence should be amended, however, by changing the word "quick" to "a slight," and inserting the words "a very few of" after "into." For of moths and butterflies, as a whole, little is really said; and of a very few species much is said that has been said over and over again by writer after writer since Harris and Yaeger. The photographs, and the reproductions from them, are mostly good—some even very good—and generally characteristic. The author has evidently seen it all herself, and has devoted a great deal of time and work to securing life-like pictures. Many features and positions are shown that have not been previously figured, and the life histories are accurately and as a rule interestingly written.

The book starts with a detailed account of the common milk-weed butterfly or "Monarch," and this is used as a basis of reference in the accounts given of other kinds. No particular system is followed in the order of species, and 113 pages are devoted to nine butterflies, though incidentally three others are figured as adults. And here it may also be said that the author's claim with regard to "forty common forms" applies really to less than thirty, though enough to make up the designated number may be figured in one stage or another.

While preaching accuracy of observation, the author occasionally allows herself little lapses, as when, on p. 17, she speaks of "hundreds of tiny sharp hooks" on each pro-leg of the milk-weed caterpillar. The number ranges from 35 to 50 by actual count. And again, on page 46, we have "hundreds of tiny hooks," where only tens exist. Surely nature is wonderful enough without exaggeration, and surely, too, the tendency to exaggerate, naturally found in children, for whom the author writes, should not be encouraged by such manifestly erroneous statements. Further, on page 194, in the account of the "yellow bear," the caterpillar is referred to as "having passed through many moults," while really there are no more than is normal throughout the group to which it belongs. The description of the cocoons of tiger moths on page 191 would be more interesting and more accurate if the character of the larval hair and their real felting structure were mentioned.

The book will be useful to New England school-children, for whom, apparently, it is mainly designed. All the species referred to occur in that section, and some occur only in the faunal region to which this section belongs. The book is excellently printed from large, clear type, on good paper, with a full table of contents and very complete index.

Egypt and the Hinterland. By Frederic Walter Fuller. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. Map, 8vo, pp. xv, 333.

The British occupation, what has it accomplished for Egypt and the Egyptians?—this is the question which Mr. Fuller endeavors to answer. He accordingly tells, often in Lord Cromer's own language, how

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the national finances have been put on a sound basis, and what steps have been taken and with what success to relieve the peasants from their indebtedness to the village usurers. He shows by numerous statistics the improvement and enlargement of the educational system and the progress of emancipation. Then he passes to a review of the methods by which the courts have been remodelled so as to bring justice within the reach of the poorest, and describes at length the irrigation-works by which the natural wealth of the country has been indefinitely increased. These "facts and figures" are prefaced and followed by a résumé of the events which led to the occupation, and a sketch of the recent Sudanese campaign. There is also a chapter, the most original in the book, on the native Christians, in which the author corrects some statements unfavorable to the morality and intelligence of the Copts to be found in certain books on Egypt.

Mr. Fuller is evidently familiar with his subject, and has brought together much valuable material, but he has not the literary faculty to put it in an interesting form. Though he has travelled extensively in the country, he rarely enlivens his dry details by illuminating facts drawn from his personal experiences. He gives no information in regard to the improvement of the material condition of the fellahin, of which a comparative analysis of the imports of the last two decades would have afforded abundant proof. He makes no reference, in fact, beyond a few cotton-crop figures, to the commercial expansion of the past twenty years. The chief merit of his book is that it gives the latest information on the subjects which it does treat, and no one can read it without increased admiration for the Englishmen who, under the stimulating leadership of Lord Cromer, have made Egypt what she is to-day.

An account of the Coptic cult is to be found in an appendix. There is an excellent index and an admirable map of the Nile Valley.

Giambattista Vico, Primo Scopritore della Scienza Estetica. Da Benedetto Croce. Naples: Detken & Rocholl.

Some time ago we had occasion to mention very briefly the work of the Neapolitan scholar, Benedetto Croce, who had just published a thin volume on the foundations of æsthetics as the first instalment of a complete 'Storia dell' Estetica.' A second instalment of this important work has been appearing as a series of articles in the Italian periodical *Flegrea*, and of these the volume before us is a reprint. It is presented to the world of scholars as an historical introduction to the more extended work, and as a first or preparatory résumé of the author's researches.

The title of the essay, however, scarcely indicates the wide scope of its general interest. A dozen pages or so are devoted to Vico himself, in support of the author's thesis that, ten years before the appearance of Baumgarten's first book, the Italian philosopher had already laid the foundations of modern æsthetic science; but it is not merely as a monograph on a single theory of art that the essay makes its real appeal to the student of æsthetics and of literary criticism. Partly, but not wholly, in support of the main theme, Croce has given a rapid but luminous survey of æsthetic theory from the Greeks to the beginning of the eighteenth century, bringing out with great clearness the trend of Hellenic discussion, the vital deficiency of mediæval theorizing, and the positive contributions of Renaissance thought to this particular field. It is here, perhaps, that the essay is most valuable, for the historians of æsthetics, like Zimmermann and Schasler, have failed to realize the importance of Renaissance theory, and the latest historian, Bosanquet, airily dismisses the long line of writers from Thomas Aquinas to Baumgarten in a paragraph or two. Croce has utilized the latest researches of Renaissance scholarship, and has made them more vital by connecting them with the general movement of critical thought.

The Greeks had understood the problem of æsthetics, but had failed to solve it; in attempting the solution, however, they had prepared an element that was to serve as the narcotic of all æsthetic discussion. This narcotic was the pedagogic theory of art; and, while Croce has misunderstood or underestimated the universal elements in the Aristotelian 'Poetics,' he is right in finding here the general trend of ancient thought. The Middle Ages accepted and refined on the pedagogic theory of art, and, as a result, we have the allegorical expositions of Fulgentius and the "four meanings" of Dante. The Renaissance did not do away with this conception of the end of art, though it refused to accept the mediæval perversions; but, with the recovery of Aristotle's 'Poetics,' the fundamental problem of artistic truth or verisimilitude was more rightly apprehended, and it was here that the future of æsthetic science was prepared for.

A century of modern critical theorizing produced a more thorough comprehension of these problems, and by the seventeenth century had effected a general scheme of procedure as well as created a number of technical terms, which were coined or at least gained currency about this time. Such were the now familiar terms: imagination, taste, sentiment, fancy, and the like. These were all-important factors, for, without a well-understood terminology of its own, æsthetic science could not work. Croce has briefly but clearly sketched the history of each of these terms, and it is here that the information will be found most interesting and novel by the general reader. Here, too, the essay best supplements the standard histories of the subject; Bosanquet, for example, fails to take account of some of the most important of these terms, which have become part of cultivated speech as well as of technical theory.

Vico's contribution to the subject lay in his original conception of the verisimilitude of art. It is needless to enter into this question at any length, and to point out precisely how he anticipated by some years the studies of Baumgarten and later German æstheticians. If the author has not convincingly justified the title of his essay, he has at least shed light on the art theory of an important thinker, and performed true pioneer work. The essay is not without deficiencies, and its briefness alone will not account for some of the more hasty generalizations. But it is always suggestive, and particularly so when connecting critical theory with the wider fields of æsthetic science. Their relation is not unlike that which ethics bears to metaphysics, and both literary critics and æstheticians are more and more prone to forget this.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Supremacy. Charles A. Bates.
Conder, Arthur R. The Seal of Silence. D. Appleton & Co. $1.00.
Diehl, Charles. En Méditerranée. Paris: Armand Colin.
Gurdji, V. Oriental Rug Weaving. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Harris, Frank B. The Road to Ridgeby's. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.50.
Liebknecht, Wilhelm. Karl Marx. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
MacMechan, Archibald. Carlyle on Heroes, Hero-Worship and the Heroic in History. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Niebuhr, Carl. The Tell el-Amarna Period. London: David Nutt.
O'Rell, Max. Her Royal Highness Woman. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Sheldon, W. L. A Scheme for Class Study and Readings in the Bible. Chicago: Unity Pub. Co.
The Book of the Horace Club, 1898-1901. London: B. H. Blackwell. 5s.
Verne, Jules. Une Ville Flottante. Henry Holt & Co. 40 cents.
Waters, Henry F. Genealogical Gleanings in England. 2 vols. Boston: Rockwell & Churchill Press.
White, John. Exercises in Qualitative Chemistry. Henry Holt & Co. 80 cents.

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